

AN INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH HISTORY

by
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With
28 SKETCH MAPS AND 77 ILLUSTRATIONS

VOLUME THREE

1763

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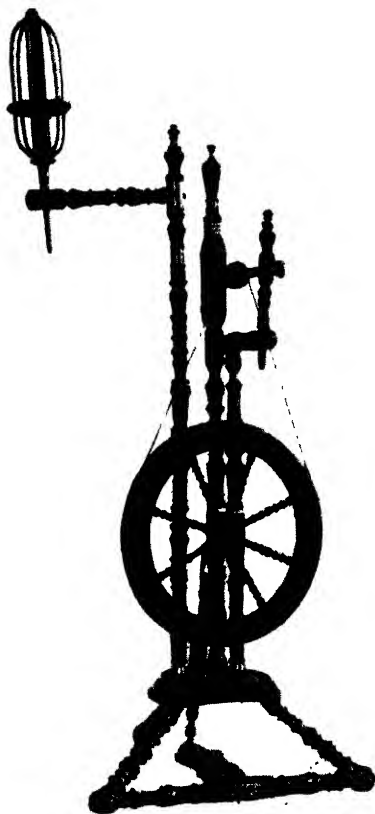
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CHAPTER 1

WOOL AND COTTON

Woollen Cloth in the Cottages. Until the eighteenth century the chief English industry was the making of woollen cloth. The cloth was not made in factories, as it is to-day, but in the cottages of the country people, and there were no great machines to do the work. The sheep from which the wool was sheared were kept in all parts of the country, and especially in the eastern counties. The wool was washed and combed, and the country women spun it into yarn on their spinning-wheels. (Nearly all women learned to spin, and even to-day an unmarried woman is called a spinster.) In many cottages there was a hand-loom on which the yarn was woven into cloth. The weaving was done sometimes by men, at other times by women.

These people did their spinning and weaving in their spare time. Sometimes they were busy in the fields, in which women and children often worked as well as men. At



Weaver Smith

A SPINNING-WHEEL

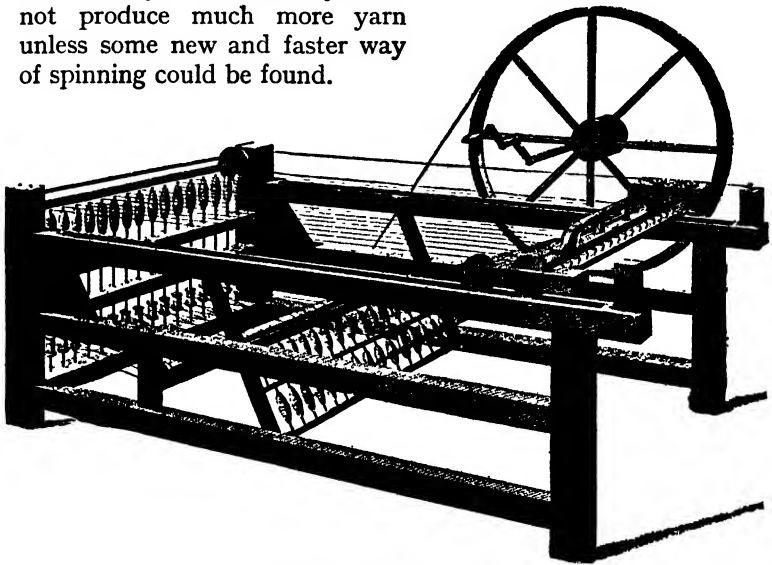
times of ploughing or sowing or reaping they worked on the land all day and every day. At other times there was not so much to do in the fields; there were even times—when the land was frozen hard or was covered with snow—when no work at all could be done out of doors. The country people then turned to their spinning-wheels and their looms.

Trade in Woollen Cloth. The cloth was collected by men called clothiers, who called at the cottages every week and paid the people for their work. They loaded the pieces of cloth on pack-horses or pack-mules and took them to a warehouse in a nearby town. Before the cloth was ready for sale it had to be dyed. Much of it was then sent by road or river to a port on the coast, where it was bought by merchants who sent it overseas in their ships to be sold in foreign countries.

Cotton. In the eighteenth century another kind of cloth came into use. It was made of cotton, which at first was known as cotton-wool. Cotton cloth, especially a very fine kind called muslin, was made in India and brought to Great Britain. Many ladies found it to be much nicer than woollen cloth for their dresses, especially in summer-time, and they used it for curtains and chair coverings as well as for clothing. Before long, cotton cloth was being made in England, the cotton being obtained from the West Indies and from the Levant (Asia Minor and Syria). Unlike wool, it could not be woven in all parts of the country; if the air was too dry the yarn would break. Cotton could be spun and woven only in places that were very damp, places where rain often fell. It was found that the best parts of the country for the making of cotton cloth were Lancashire and the Clyde Valley. (Everybody has heard that "it rains every day in Manchester.")

Foreign Trade. Every year more and more cloth, cotton and woollen, was wanted abroad. The merchants wanted to buy more of it from the clothiers, and the clothiers tried to get the weavers and spinners to make more. But the cottagers could not make much more. The weavers, indeed, could have woven more.

They were sometimes idle because they had to wait for the yarn to be turned out by the spinners. A weaver would use as much yarn as could be spun by six spinners. The spinners worked as hard as they could, but they could not produce much more yarn unless some new and faster way of spinning could be found.



THE SPINNING-JENNY

Machines for Spinning. Several people tried to invent machines to do the work of spinning. When James Hargreaves, a weaver of Blackburn in Lancashire, by chance knocked over his wife's spinning-wheel he noticed that it continued to spin while it was on the floor. He thought that it might be made to turn several spindles at once, and in 1767 he made a machine which he called the spinning-jenny (after his wife, whose name was Jenny). His spinning-jenny turned eleven spindles at a time, producing yarn which was fine though not very strong.

A year or two later Richard Arkwright invented another machine which turned out a stronger thread; it was worked by water power and was called the water-frame. The spinning-jenny,

like the spinning-wheel, was worked by hand and could be used in the cottages, but the water-frame had to be used by the side of a stream which would turn a water-wheel. In 1771 a factory was built at Cromford, in Derbyshire, on the banks of the River Derwent. Water-frames in this factory produced large quantities of yarn which was used by Arkwright and his partner, Jedediah Strutt, in the making of stockings.

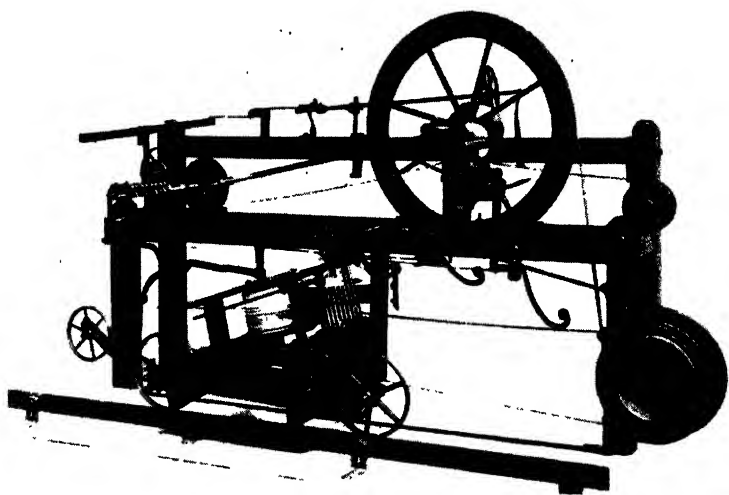
In 1776 the mule, a better machine for spinning, was invented by Samuel Crompton. It combined the spinning-jenny and the water-frame, and it produced a thread that was both fine and strong. Larger mules were made in course of time; some of them turned many thousands of spindles.

The mule is still used for spinning, but another kind of spinning machine, the ring spinner, was invented about 1850 by an American named Thorpe, and this also is largely used.

Machines for Weaving. In weaving, the long threads (the warp) were stretched on the loom, and the cross threads (the weft) were worked in by the weaver as he stood in front of the loom and passed a shuttle from one side to the other and back again. The width of the cloth was from thirty to thirty-six inches—the distance that the weaver could reach easily. It was possible to weave broadcloth, twice as wide as cloth of single width, only if two weavers worked side by side and passed the shuttle to each other.

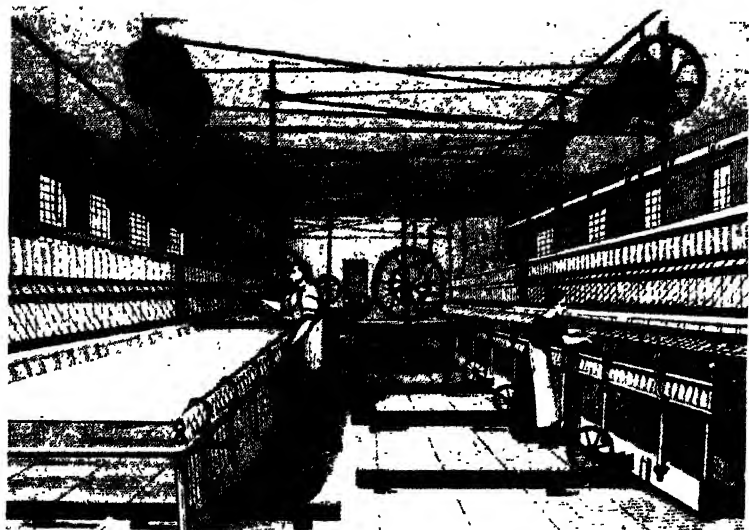
In 1733 John Kay, of Bury, in Lancashire, invented a flying shuttle by the use of which broadcloth could be woven by one man instead of two; the weaver pulled strings with one hand and then with the other, and the shuttle passed across from one side to the other and back again. But Kay's flying shuttle was invented many years before the spinning machines, and it was of little use until there was plenty of yarn.

After the invention of the spinning-jenny and the mule there was much more yarn than the weavers could use on their hand-loom. They were no longer standing idle, waiting for yarn. A machine-loom was wanted, and it was invented by Edmund Cartwright in 1785. Cartwright's first machine was clumsy and



CROMPTON'S MULE

Science Museum



EARLY NINETEENTH-CENTURY MULES

Weaver Smith

did not work well at first, but it was improved, and after a few years hundreds of machine-loom were in use.

Bleaching and Printing. When the cotton cloth had left the loom it was greyish in colour and had to be whitened, or bleached. (Calico is not always bleached; for some purposes unbleached calico is used.) At one time the cloth was bleached by dipping it in sour milk and leaving it spread out in the open air for some weeks. It was found that if a little acid was added to the milk the bleaching took only a few days. In 1787 it was discovered that chlorine would bleach the cloth quickly, and a bleaching powder of chlorine and lime was invented which is still in use.

White cloth was ready to be sold after it had been bleached. But sometimes a coloured pattern had to be printed on the cloth. The pattern was cut on a block which was dipped in the dye and pressed by hand on the cloth. This was a slow and clumsy process, and in 1785 a Scotsman named Thomas Bell cut his patterns on rollers; the cloth was passed over the roller and was printed much more neatly and quickly.

Factories. Machines for spinning and weaving could not be used in the cottages. They were much larger than the spinning-wheel and the hand-loom, and there was not room for them; they cost much money, and the poor country people could not afford them; and they were worked by water power or by steam power, which could not be applied in the cottages. Factories were built and machines were placed in them, and the workers had to go to the factories instead of working at home. While machines were worked by a water-wheel the factories were built in the country, on the banks of streams; when the steam-engine came into use for driving machinery large factories were built and great towns grew up.

Many people did not like working in factories instead of at home. At home they could work as long as they liked and could stop working when they wished to do so; they could leave their work if they wanted to go out for a walk or to stroll round the garden. But when they worked in a factory they had to be there when it

was time to start work, and they could not leave till the end of the day; they felt they were slaves of the factory bell. They passed all their working time in the factory, and they could no longer cultivate a few acres of land.

Cotton and Wool. The machines that have been described were invented for the spinning and weaving of cotton. Cotton was grown in the West Indies, and towards the end of the eighteenth century it began to be grown in the United States, so that plenty of it could be obtained. Cotton cloth was wanted in many parts of the world as well as in England, and merchants could sell as much as could be produced.

For a time woollen cloth was still made in the cottages, because there was not enough wool to make it worth while to use machines for spinning and weaving it. The cotton trade was for many years more important than the woollen. At length machines were used for wool as well as for cotton. Wool was sent to Great Britain from Australia and New Zealand, and the making of woollen cloth in Yorkshire became as important as that of cotton in Lancashire.

The Industrial Revolution. These changes took place in the sixty years while George III was King. In 1760 the work was done by hand in the homes of the workers. By 1820, though home work had not entirely died out, most of the work was done by machines in factories. This change, from cottage work to factory work, and from hand work to machine work, was a kind of revolution in industry. It did not take place all at once but was spread over many years. But though the change was slow it really took place. It made Great Britain the workshop of the world for many years, since other nations had not yet learned of the new machines, and foreign people were eager to buy British goods. The change is known as the Industrial Revolution.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Explain the need for (a) spinning machines, and (b) weaving machines, in the eighteenth century.

2. Name four inventors of machines, and state what was invented by each of them.

3. (a) Why was the cotton industry more important for a time than the woollen industry?

(b) Why did the woollen industry afterwards become as important as the cotton industry?

4. Why were machines not used in the cottages?

5. Why did people dislike working in the factories?

CHAPTER 2

COAL

Coal in Earlier Times. Coal has been mined in this country ever since the time of the Romans, but it was not very important in the Middle Ages. In Tudor and Stuart times more coal was used than formerly. It was carried from Newcastle to London by sea, in ships called colliers; hence it was commonly called sea-coal. It could be taken in barges up the rivers to the towns on their banks, but it was very hard to carry it to towns which were not near any broad river. Roads were too bad for coal waggons, and the coal had to be loaded in bags or baskets which were slung on the backs of pack-horses.

Uses of Coal. In the eighteenth century coal became really important. Abraham Darby found a way of using it for the smelting of iron, and when the steam-engine was invented coal was used for driving it. In more recent times coal has been put to many other uses. When railways and steamships were built they could not have been worked without coal. Dyes and many other things are obtained from coal tar. The gas that is used for lighting and heating comes from coal, and coal is needed in the power stations in which electricity is produced to-day.

A Coal Mine. Coal is found in seams or layers, some of which are several feet thick while others are much thinner. Sometimes these seams slope upwards to the surface, and men can dig out coal from the end of the seam; this is known as open working. As a rule, a pit has to be dug, and passages are cut from the sides of the pit into the seams of the coal. Mining is very hard work and is full of danger. Getting the coal is so hard a task that it seems like a fight against the forces of nature, and miners quite rightly speak of "winning" the coal.

Pumping. Digging a pit for coal is like sinking a well; water in the ground flows into the pit. That is just what is wanted when a well is sunk, but a coal pit has to be kept clear of water by



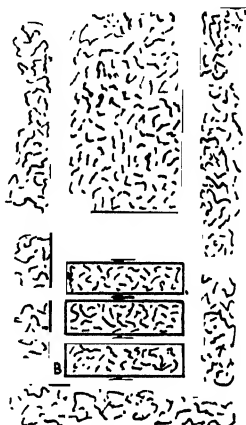
MINERS AT WORK

Weaver Smith

pumping. While pumping was carried on by hand it was impossible to dig very deep pits, but with the invention of the steam-engine by Newcomen and Watt, as described in another chapter, it became possible to sink deeper shafts, since the steam-engine was powerful enough to keep them free from water.

The Roof of the Mine. If all the coal of a seam were removed, the earth above it would fall in and the miners would be trapped and killed unless the roof were held up in some way. One way of preventing the fall was by leaving strong pillars of coal to hold the roof up. This was wasteful, and after 1810 pit-props were used. As the coal was taken out props of timber were set up to prevent the roof of the mine from collapsing.

Ventilation. If no fresh air came into the mine the men could not breathe. Two pits, or shafts, were sunk in a mine, and a fire was kept alight at the bottom of one shaft. The fire caused hot air to rise in that shaft, and fresh air was drawn down the other shaft to replace it. All passages or galleries were connected with both shafts, and the air passed through them. But the fire sometimes caused explosions, and nowadays air is forced up one shaft and down the other by powerful fans.



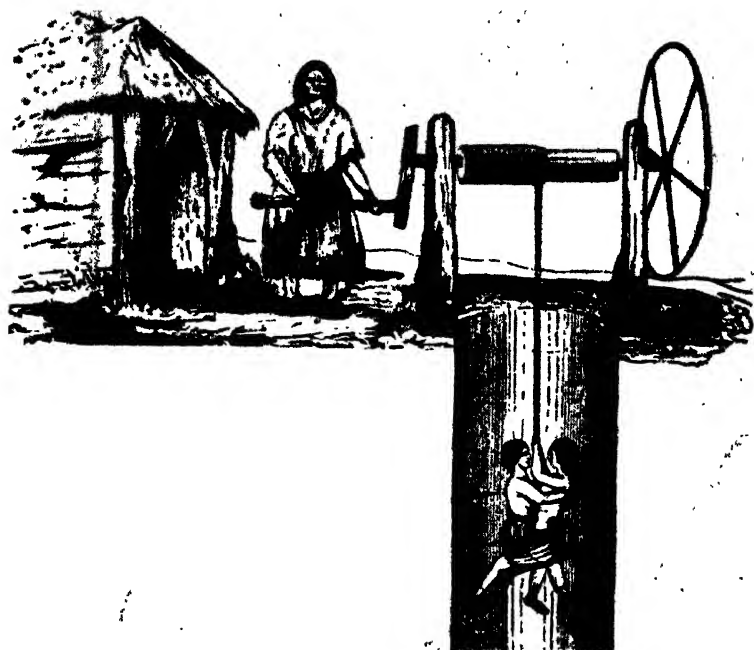
FIRE AT B OR FAN AT A
MINE VENTILATION

Lighting. Men could not work in the mine without lights. If naked lights were used, the gases which escape from the coal seams would explode. In 1815 Sir Humphry Davy invented a safety lamp for use in mines. At the present time electric light is used in the main galleries, but Davy lamps are still used in the side passages.

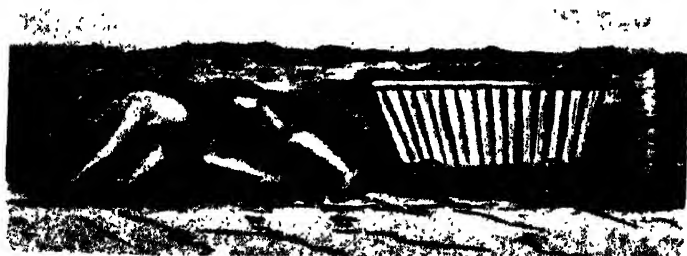
Lifting the Coal. It was not easy to bring the coal to the surface. Sometimes it was hauled up in large buckets or baskets by a steam-engine, the rope being wound on a drum. A very long and strong rope was needed; such ropes cost a good deal, and they soon wore out. More often the coal was carried to the top of the pit by women and girls; baskets of coal were slung on their backs, and they climbed ladders which were fixed to the side of the pit. This work was very hard and very dangerous, for the carriers sometimes fell back and were killed.

After 1842 women and girls (and young boys) were no longer employed underground. A wire rope had been invented in 1839 and it was used henceforth in hauling coal to the surface.

Accidents. Coal-mining was (and still is) very dangerous, and accidents—from explosions, falls of rock, and other causes—in



Weaver Smith
CHILDREN BEING LOWERED DOWN THE SHAFT OF A
COAL MINE



Weaver Smith
A GIRL PULLING A TRUCK IN A MINE

which men were killed often happened. Whenever a person is killed by accident in this country, an inquiry (called an inquest) is held in order to find out how the accident occurred and whether anybody is to blame for it. Before 1815 no inquest was held when men lost their lives in a coal mine; it was thought that merely working in the mine was enough to explain the accident.

English and Scottish Miners in the Eighteenth Century. Miners in England in the eighteenth century received better pay than many of the people who worked in factories. They were able to buy plenty of food, and they were strong and healthy, though every day they ran the risk of sudden death.

In Scotland, however, the miners were not even free men. They with their wives and children were bound to work in the mine. They could not leave, and if they ran away they might be caught and put in prison. Some of them wore brass collars on which the mineowner's name was engraved. If the mine was sold to a new owner the miners were sold with it. They were no more free than the English serfs of the Middle Ages—less so, in fact, for if a serf ran away and was not caught within a year and a day he became free, but the Scottish miner did not. And he was very badly paid; a man received only tenpence a day and a woman threepence a day.

Improvements in Mining. The conditions of working in coal mines have been improved from time to time during the last hundred years. Inspectors of mines have been appointed, and it is their duty to see that the rules for safe working are obeyed. Whenever an accident occurs an inquiry into its causes is held, and sometimes new rules are made in order that such accidents shall not happen again. Every mine must have two shafts, and all large mines now have more than two; if one of the shafts is blocked by an accident the men can leave the mine by another, and so are less likely to be trapped underground. Coal-cutting machines are used in some mines, so that there is less of the hard labour of hewing the coal with pick and shovel. At many mines

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there are pithead baths, and the men can bathe, change their clothes, and leave the dirt of the mine behind them when they go home.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

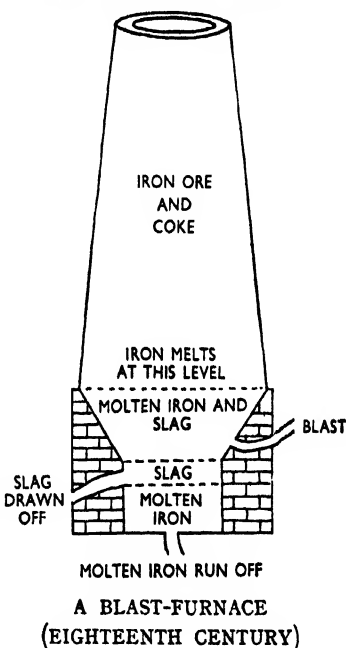
1. Mention some of the uses of coal.
2. What are the difficulties and dangers of coal-mining? What has been done to overcome each of them?
3. In what ways were Scottish miners in the eighteenth century worse off than English miners?
4. Mention some things that are done to-day to make the miner's life and work safer, easier, and less unpleasant.

CHAPTER 3

IRON, STEEL, AND ENGINEERING

Smelting. Iron is found in ores in which it is mixed with other minerals, from which it is separated by smelting. (Some ores contain very little iron, and these are not worth smelting.) The ore is mixed with fuel in a blast-furnace; the iron melts and runs off into moulds of sand, where it is left to cool, and the other minerals in the ore are raked out of the furnace. A large mass of the metal is thus formed, with smaller masses round it. To the workmen in time past these masses seemed like a sow with a litter of pigs, and the men still call the large mass a sow and the smaller masses pigs. Hence newly smelted iron is known as pig iron. The waste matter in the furnace is called slag. Pig iron is re-smelted and run into moulds of the shapes of articles required; it is then known as cast iron.

IRON ORE AND COKE THROWN IN



Smelting with Charcoal. Iron, like coal, has been mined in Great Britain ever since the time of the Romans. Until the eighteenth century the fuel used in smelting it was charcoal, and smelting was carried on in furnaces in the forests in many parts of the country, especially in the Forest of Dean, in Gloucestershire, and in the Weald, in Sussex. By the eighteenth century so much

timber had been used that it was feared there would not be enough left to build ships for the navy and for trade, and laws were passed to prevent the felling of trees for the smelting of iron. By the year 1740 less than 18,000 tons of iron were being smelted in Great Britain each year. It seemed likely that the iron industry would die out from Great Britain, and iron was imported from other countries.

Smelting with Coke. Could any other fuel be found for smelting iron? Coal was tried, but it was found that the sulphur in the coal mixed with the iron and made it so brittle that it broke very easily and was useless. An ironmaster, Abraham Darby, found that coke could be made from coal; the coke did not contain sulphur and could be used for smelting iron. Darby kept his discovery secret for some years, but other ironmasters learned it in time, and the smelting of iron with coke became common. The effect of the discovery of coke-smelting was to make pig iron (or cast iron) plentiful and cheap.

Wrought Iron. Cast iron is useful for some purposes but not for others. Pillars, such as lamp-posts or the uprights which support piers and bridges, may be made of cast iron. It is very strong; yet it cannot be hammered into shape, for if it is struck sharply it may break. Cast iron is not pure; it contains a certain amount of carbon. Another ironmaster, Henry Cort, found that if the carbon could be removed the iron could be softened by being heated and then hammered into shape. By melting the iron and stirring it he burnt the carbon out, and produced wrought iron. This was made into bars, or was rolled into thin sheets which were used for the sides of water-tanks, for the plates which lined tunnels, and, in the nineteenth century, for the plates which made up the hulls of iron ships.

Steel. Steel was much harder and brighter than either cast iron or wrought iron, and it was harder to make. It contained some carbon, but not so much as cast iron. When the ironmasters were making steel they could melt cast iron and burn out some

of the carbon, but they could not be sure how much was left. They were uncertain whether they would produce cast iron or steel or wrought iron; it depended on the amount of carbon left in the metal.

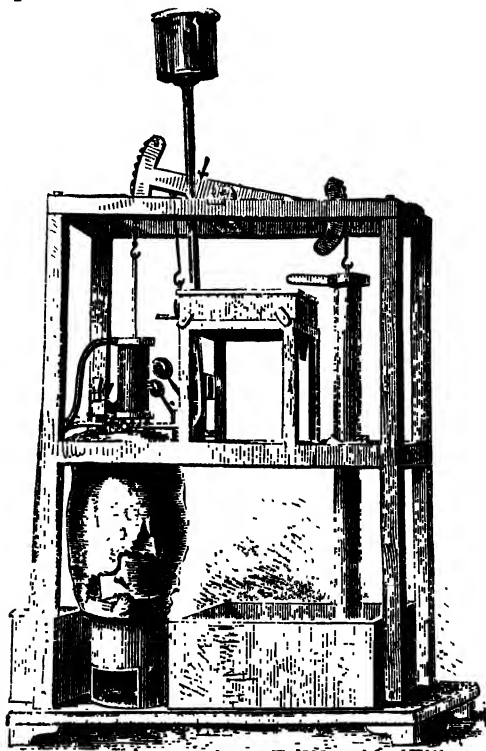
It was not till the middle of the nineteenth century that Sir Henry Bessemer found a new way of making steel. He melted the pig iron and burned out all the carbon, and then added a substance that contained carbon. In this way he knew how much carbon was added.

The Uses of Iron. During the eighteenth century iron was needed for many purposes. The machines that were being invented were at first of wood and iron, but when iron became more plentiful they were made entirely of it. When the steam-engine was invented more iron was wanted. Short railways, on which trucks were drawn by horses, were laid down; the rails were of iron, and iron and wood were used in making the trucks. People laughed when an ironmaster named John Wilkinson said that houses and ships might be built of iron and that roads of iron might be laid down. They did not laugh, but were amazed, when he made an iron barge which floated on the River Severn and did not sink! Wilkinson built an iron bridge across the Severn; he made guns for the British Government and the French Government; he made all the ironwork needed for new waterworks in Paris. And when he died in 1808 he was buried in an iron coffin!

The Uses of Steel. Much more iron was wanted in the nineteenth century when the railways were built and steamships were invented. Later in the century steel, which was harder and also cheaper than iron, was more commonly used. Steel rails lasted much longer than iron rails. Steel ships were stronger and lighter than iron ships; they were lighter because very thin steel plates could be used, and they could be loaded more fully than iron ships.

Steel Alloys. For some purposes pure steel is no longer used, small quantities of other metals being mixed with it. If tools

with a very keen edge are required, tungsten, vanadium, and cobalt are mixed with the steel. A small quantity of silicon mixed with pure steel makes it more suitable for springs. Nickel

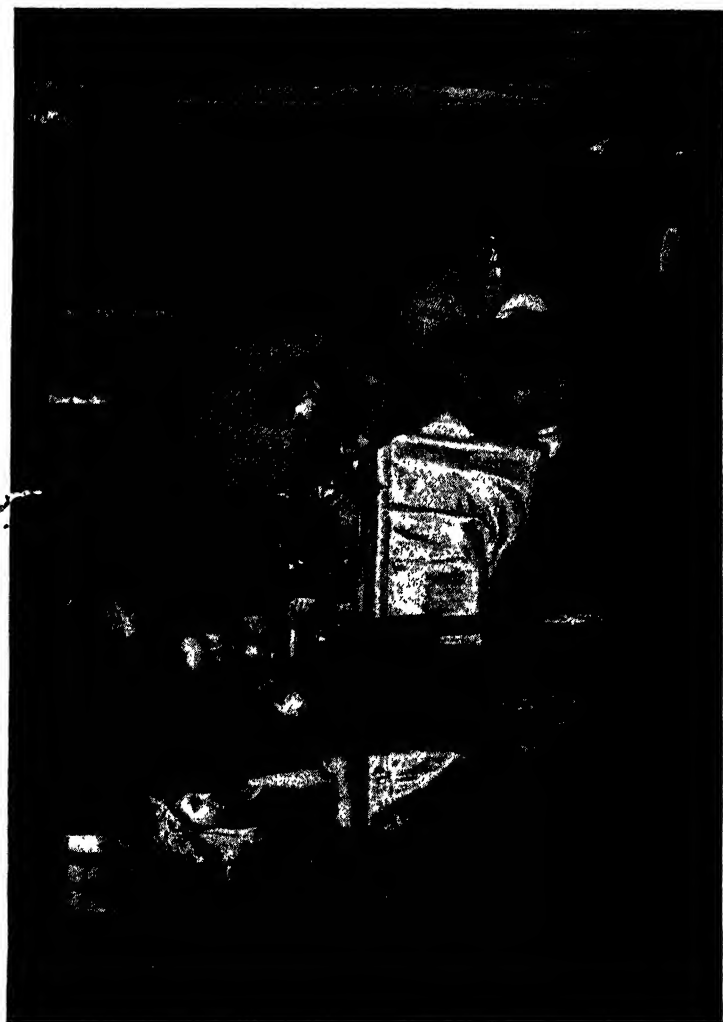


Weaver Smith

NEWCOMEN'S STEAM-ENGINE

and chromium added to steel make it tougher; this alloy is used for axles, propeller shafts, piston rods, steering levers, and gun tubes. Stainless steel is an alloy of steel and chromium.

Alloys of steel with magnesium and aluminium are known as light-metal alloys; they are used for such varied purposes as aeroplanes and typewriters, motor-cars and sewing machines. In



Weaver Smith

JAMES WATT AND THE KETTLE

9534

the United States the magnesium-steel alloy is produced near the coast, since magnesium is extracted from sea water.

The Steam-engine. A steam-engine for pumping water out of coal mines was invented by Thomas Newcomen early in the



Science Museum

WATT'S STEAM-ENGINE

eighteenth century. Newcomen's engines worked well and were used in many mines, but they consumed a great deal of fuel.

The inventor of the modern engine was James Watt. It is said that when he was a boy Watt noticed that steam was strong enough to lift the lid of a kettle. He thought about the power of steam for many years, and in 1769 he made an improvement on Newcomen's engine. He continued his work, and in 1782 he brought out an engine of a different type which was much better than Newcomen's and used less fuel. Though these engines were intended at first for pumping water out of coal and other mines they were soon used for driving machinery as well.

Machinery. Many girls and boys have seen the great steel machines in a factory and have noticed how smoothly and how fast they work. The machines in the early cotton and wool factories were not like those of to-day. For the most part they were made of wood, though some parts were made of iron (not steel). They were clumsy, and when they were put together they would not always work. The parts did not always fit perfectly, and sometimes the machine had to be taken to pieces so that some of the parts could be altered. Screws were tightened or loosened, bits of packing would be put in, and at last, with groans and squeaks, the machine would begin to work.

Modern machines can be built and made to work at once. This is because machine tools are used in making the parts. These tools are very exact. They can cut steel to any length required—not nearly, but exactly. They can punch holes of a certain size—not nearly, but exactly. The parts of a machine fit exactly when it is put together, and if in time a part should be damaged a spare part of exactly the same size can be fitted in to replace it.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. How is iron obtained?
2. Name four ironmasters of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, and state what was done by each of them for the industry.
3. Why is steel more useful than iron?
4. Who invented the steam-engine? What are its uses?
5. Compare the machines of the twentieth century with those of the eighteenth.

CHAPTER 4

AGRICULTURE

The Open-field System. When George III came to the throne the greater part of the people were engaged, full time or part time, in farm work in the country. In villages in which the old open-field system still existed, nearly all the men had a few acres of land on which they grew wheat and barley for their own use or for sale. There was a large stretch of common on which they could turn their cattle and goats and poultry; from the village meadow they had a share of the hay with which to feed their cattle in winter-time; and there was often a piece of land covered with trees from which they cut branches for winter fuel. Pigs were driven into the woodland to grub for acorns and beech-nuts:

The villager did not spend all his time on the land. When he was not busy in the fields he was at work at his loom, weaving into cloth the yarn which had been spun by his wife and daughters. Since the country people had two sources of income—from the land and from their weaving—they were not badly off.

Drawbacks of the Open-field System. The open-field system was not good. Large fields were divided into strips, and men wasted much of their time in walking from one strip to another, for the strips were scattered, and nobody had all his strips together in one place. There was also a great waste of land, since the commons were not cultivated, and there were waste patches on the arable fields also. The yield was poor, and if weeds were allowed to grow on some of the strips they soon spread all over the field. Worse than all this was the fact that there was no way of improving the cultivation, since everybody was expected to grow the same crop as his neighbours and to do his ploughing and his sowing and his reaping when they did theirs. And for one year in three the land lay fallow.

Enclosed Farms. The open-field system did not exist everywhere. In some parts of the country the open fields and the commons and the meadows had been cut up into farms which had hedges round them, and on these enclosed farms the farmers could cultivate as they pleased and obtain better crops. But the open-field system still existed in about half the villages of the country.

Enclosure of the Open Fields. During the reign of George III most of the open fields were given up and enclosed farms took their place. This was done in a way that was not fair to the country people. When it was decided to make the change in a country village every man was given as much land as he had had in the open fields, and it was in one piece instead of being scattered. What was left over was taken by the squire of the village, who took also the meadow, the common, and the woodland.

. The law arrests the man or woman
 Who steals the goose from off the common;
 But leaves the greater villain loose
 Who steals the common from the goose!

The poor villager now had a small piece of land, but he had to put a fence or a hedge round it, he had nowhere on which his oxen could graze or his fowls could run, he had no hay for the animals in winter, and he could no longer send a pig into the woods. He was much worse off than before, and if the squire offered to buy his piece of land he was glad to sell it. In this way the squire often owned the whole of the land of the village. He divided it into farms which he let out to farmers who paid him rent for the land they tilled.

Better Farming. No doubt the land was put to much better use as a result of the change. Land did not lie fallow one year in every three, and there was not so much waste land. Seed was sown in a better way. The old-fashioned sower would walk across his field with a bag or tray of seed and scatter it by hand, so that some parts of the ground got too little and other parts too much. The up-to-date farmer used a machine called a drill, which sowed

the seed in straight lines; it made holes in the ground and dropped one seed in each hole. Clover and root-crops, such as turnips and swedes, were grown as well as wheat and barley; this was to provide cattle and sheep with food in the winter. Under the old system the animals lived on hay, and not very much of it, during the winter. They now became fatter and larger. At the end of the eighteenth century a fat ox was more than twice as heavy as one in Queen Anne's reign; sheep were nearly three times as heavy, and they had much more wool.

In this way more food was grown than under the old system. And more was needed, for many big factory towns were springing up, and the workers had to be fed. Corn and meat and other foodstuffs were sent into the towns, where they fetched good prices. The squires grew rich, and so did many of the farmers.

The Country People. But what of the country people who had sold their small pieces of land? Before the changes, they had worked on the land and also at weaving. Now, if they stayed in the country, they had to work as labourers for the farmers; their wages were low, and they were very poor. They could not earn extra money by weaving, for cloth was now being made by machinery in the factory towns instead of by hand in country cottages. Many of the country folk moved into the towns and obtained work in the factories, where they worked for long hours at low wages.

The War Period. From 1793 to 1815 Great Britain was at war with France; during this long period the population continued to grow, and still more food was needed. Very little food was obtained from other countries, because of the war. The price of English corn was high, and squires and farmers grew richer. The labourers were so poor that they became paupers; their wages were so low that they could not buy enough food for themselves and their families, and they had to be given money from parish funds, as will be described more fully in another chapter.

The Corn Law of 1815. When peace was restored after the

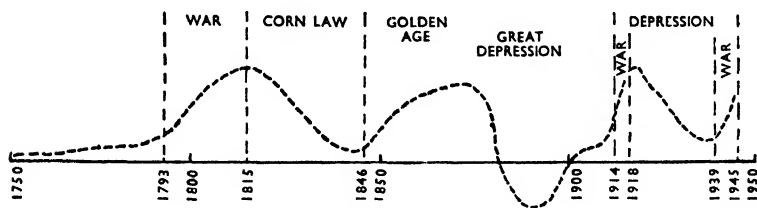
Battle of Waterloo in 1815 it became possible to import corn from other countries. If a large amount of corn came into the country the price would fall, and the squires and farmers would not be so well off. A law was passed in 1815 stating that no wheat should be imported while English wheat was being sold at a lower price than eighty shillings per quarter. This was a cruel law, for while corn was sold at that price bread was very dear. Wages were still low in town and country, and poor people had not enough to eat. The squires and farmers, of course, hoped that the price of corn would remain high.

The Corn Law was altered three times in the next thirty years, but the people could not get cheap food while it lasted. In 1846 it was repealed by Sir Robert Peel, and from this time the food of the people became cheaper.

Prosperous Agriculture. Landlords and farmers thought they would be ruined when the Corn Law was repealed. In fact, they were better off in the thirty years after its repeal than they had been during the thirty years it had been in force. Harvests were good, and workmen in towns were earning higher wages and could afford to buy more food. Farmers cultivated their land in better ways and obtained larger crops, which they could send to market by rail, as by this time railways had been built in all parts of the country.

Depressed Agriculture. In the last quarter of the nineteenth century British farmers had a bad time. Harvests were often poor because of bad weather; in some years there was not enough rain, in others there was too much. The year 1879 was the worst on record, worse even than 1946; there was so much rain that much of the corn could not be gathered in, and it rotted in the fields. The farm animals suffered from disease—cattle from foot-and-mouth disease and pigs from swine fever, and thousands of animals had to be killed. In the nineties there were several very dry summers, and the corn would not grow. Yet there was plenty of cheap food in the country because corn and meat were sent to Great Britain from North America and other parts of the

world. The ordinary loaf of bread cost $2d.$ if it was brought to the house, or $1\frac{3}{4}d.$ when it was fetched from the baker's shop, and in some parts of London it cost no more than $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ Beef was sold for $4d.$ per pound or even less. Sugar cost about $1d.$ per pound, and eggs were sold at 16 or 20 or even 24 for a shilling. At the beginning of the nineteenth century farmers were well off and the people were starving; near the end of the century the people had plenty of cheap food while many farmers became bankrupt and left their farms.



THE UPS AND DOWNS OF AGRICULTURE

The Twentieth Century. Things improved in the twentieth century. Many farmers turned to other crops than corn. They grew fruit, potatoes, and other vegetables; they kept more cattle and sold milk and butter and cheese.

When Great Britain was at war with Germany between 1914 and 1918 much more home-grown corn was needed, since German submarines sank many of the ships which were bringing food to this country. Farmers ploughed their land up again and received much higher prices for their wheat than they had had for many years. After the war wheat was again imported from abroad; prices fell, and farmers were again badly off.

During the war of 1939-45 they ploughed their land once more, and much of the food of the country was home-grown. It is to be hoped that British farms will not again be left untilled and that the country will always in future grow a large part of its food.

The Rural Exodus. Throughout the nineteenth century farm labourers were very badly paid, and many of them left the country

to work in the towns, where they could earn more money. This movement of the labourers went on for many years, so that farmers had not enough men to do the work of their farms. This led to the use of machines in farm work—steam-ploughs, tractors, threshing-machines, reapers, milking-machines, and many others. Even so, there were often not enough men to work the machines, and during the war of 1939–45 the Women's Land Army was formed to do farm work. German and Italian prisoners of war were employed to work on the land, and many people spent their holidays in work on a farm. Without the help of all these men and women the farmers could not have produced so much.

It is hoped that a large number of people, especially of men who have served in the forces, will be willing in future to live in the country and work on the land. At the time of writing, few of them are doing so. More and better houses must be built in the country; life in the country must be made brighter and pleasanter; and men must be paid higher wages than at present. Only when these things are done will there be any hope of large numbers of people returning to country life.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What were the faults of the open-field system of agriculture?
2. In what ways was the enclosure of the open fields (*a*) good, and (*b*) bad?
3. What was the Corn Law of 1815? Why was it repealed?
4. Why were farmers not prosperous in the last years of the nineteenth century?
5. What was the rural exodus? State (*a*) its causes, and (*b*) its results.
6. Describe the ups and downs of British agriculture in the twentieth century.

CHAPTER 5

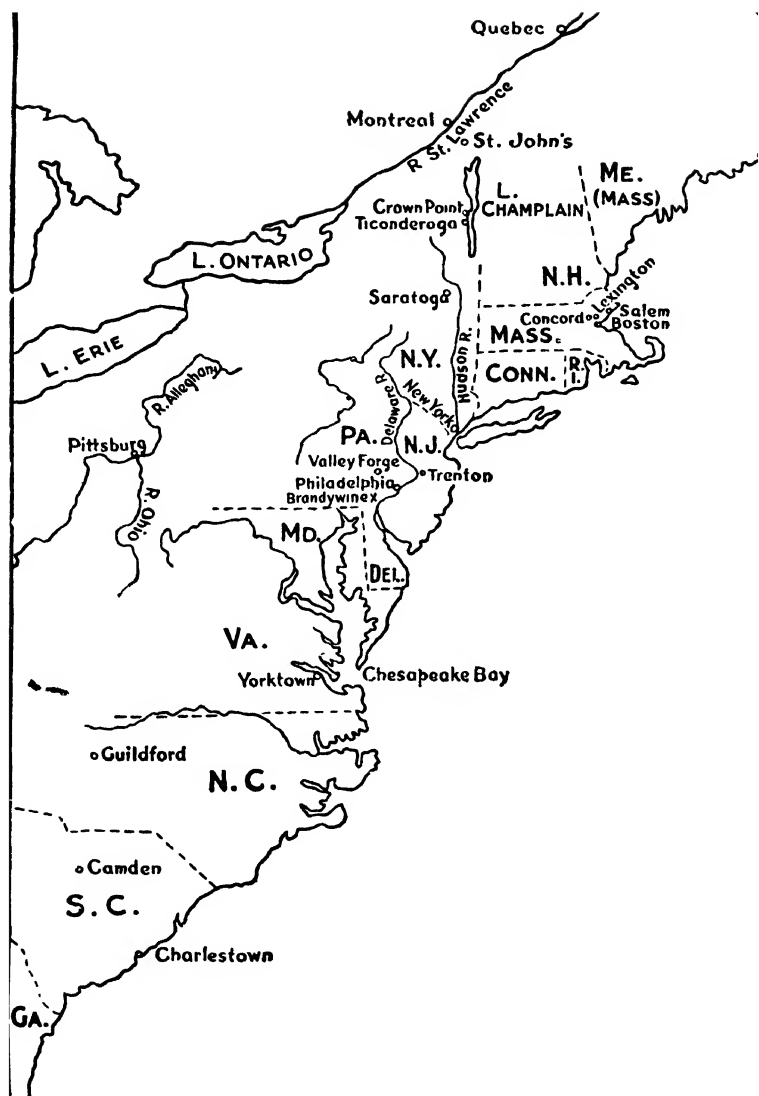
THE AMERICAN COLONIES

The Colonies. On the east coast of North America Great Britain had thirteen colonies, which are shown on the map. Most of them had been founded by Englishmen in the Stuart period, though two or three had been conquered from the Dutch in the reign of Charles II, and one (Georgia) had been founded in the reign of George II.

Most of the white people in the colonies were English, and though a few were Dutch or Swedish the English language was spoken everywhere. The climate of the northern colonies was a good deal like that of England, and the people lived by growing wheat and barley, by cutting down trees and building ships, and by fishing. But white men did not do much work in the southern colonies, where the climate was too warm. In the south the colonists owned large estates on which the work was done by slaves. Most of the slaves were negroes from Africa, though some were criminals sent out from England. Tobacco and sugar and rice were grown in these southern colonies.

There was a good deal of trade between the colonies and Great Britain, and some trade, though not very much, between the colonies and foreign countries. Some of the things produced in America, such as tobacco and sugar, had to be sent to Great Britain, though other things might be sent to other countries. But all colonial trade had to be carried in British ships or colonial ships. A foreign ship might not enter a colonial port at all unless it was driven in by storm.

The colonists did not like these rules about their trade. Many of them wanted to sell their sugar and tobacco and rum in foreign countries, where they might get higher prices than in England. They sometimes managed to do this, though it was against the law, for the British Government did not send out enough coast-guard ships to prevent this smuggling trade.



THE AMERICAN COLONIES

Each colony had its own parliament, called an Assembly, which was elected by the people and made laws for the colony. And each colony had a Governor who was appointed from Great Britain. Often the Governor was unpopular with the people he was supposed to rule. Sometimes a quarrel would break out between Governor and Assembly. The Assembly was supposed to pay the Governor's salary; it might refuse to give him the money, and he had no way of forcing it to pay. It is clear that the Governor of a colony did not always have an easy time.

Great Britain did not take much interest in the colonies, and the colonists did not care very much for Great Britain. A voyage across the Atlantic Ocean might take four or five weeks or longer. Very few of the colonists had ever seen Great Britain, and hardly any of the British people, except a few sailors, had visited the colonies. British and Americans knew very little about each other.

Yet the colonists were glad to have the help of Great Britain in defending their homes from their enemies. Canada was a French colony until it was conquered by the British in the Seven Years War, and the French had built many forts behind the British colonies. There was often fighting between the French and the Americans, and it seemed that the French hoped to conquer and rule the colonies. Most of the Indian tribes took part in the fighting at some time or other; many of them fought for the French, though the Iroquois sided with the Americans. It was not rare for a lonely farmhouse in the backwoods to be attacked by Indians, and the farmer and his family and his men had to fight grimly if they were not to be taken and killed. During the Seven Years War Wolfe captured Quebec; the rest of the French forts were taken, and the French lost all their possessions in North America.

The Quarrel between British and Americans. The conquest of Canada made a good deal of difference to the Americans. They no longer had to fear the French, and the Indians were not so eager to attack them after the French had been conquered. It might be thought that the colonists would be grateful to the British for removing this great danger. Instead of being grateful,

some of them thought that they need not be subject to Great Britain any longer, and they began to think of becoming independent. At first only a few of them hoped to break away from



Weaver Smith

AN INDIAN ATTACK ON A LONELY FARM

the mother country; most of them wished to remain loyal subjects of the King.

After the Seven Years War the British Government did two things which annoyed the colonists very much. It tried to

enforce the laws about trade more strictly and to stop the smuggling of colonial goods to foreign countries, and it tried to tax the colonies.

The taxes which were proposed were not to be levied for the benefit of Great Britain. The money raised from them was to be spent in the colonies for their own good—to pay part of the cost of an army to defend them if there should be another French attack, and to pay salaries to judges and other important people in the colonies. The Americans did not oppose the taxes because they were heavy (for they were not heavy), but because they were ordered by the British Parliament; they said that the Parliament at Westminster did not represent them, and they shouted, "No taxation without representation." They thought that they should not pay taxes which had not been ordered by the colonial Assemblies.

One of the taxes was a stamp duty on various documents. If a man made a will it had to be stamped; if he bought a house the papers which proved the house to belong to him had to be stamped; certificates, playing cards, newspapers, calendars, and advertisements all had to be stamped. The Americans were so angry about this that they burned some of the offices where the stamped paper was stored. Many of them stopped trading with Great Britain; they would not buy British goods, and they refused to pay their debts to British merchants. The tax lasted only a year, and was then withdrawn.

Later, taxes were put on such articles as lead, paper, glass, and tea. The Americans resisted again, and again the taxes were withdrawn—except that on tea, and this was retained only because King George III specially wished it. The tax on tea going into the American colonies was only threepence per pound, while on tea which was taken to England it was a shilling per pound. The Americans certainly did not resist the tax because it was heavy but because it was imposed by the British Parliament.

By this time a good deal of ill-feeling had arisen between British and Americans. In 1770 a company of soldiers at Boston was jeered at and pelted with snowballs by a mob of people. The soldiers fired on the mob, and two or three people were killed.

The Americans called this incident the Boston Massacre, and the officer in charge of the soldiers was put on trial in Boston for murder. But the trial was fair, and he was found not guilty.

In 1772 a King's ship, the *Gaspee*, ran aground on the coast of Rhode Island. A number of Americans forced the crew to leave the ship, which was then set on fire. The British Government wanted to punish the men who did this, but they were not arrested, and nobody was punished.

The most serious American action against the British at this time was the Boston Tea Party, in December, 1773. Two ships of the East India Company, laden with tea, entered Boston harbour. The tax of threepence per pound would have to be paid when the tea was landed. But it was never landed. Some young men, dressed as Red Indians (so that they should not be recognised and afterwards punished), boarded the ships and overpowered the crews. They threw three hundred and seventy chests of tea, worth £18,500, into the sea, "to see if tea could be made with salt water."

The British Government was really angry. It ordered that the port of Boston should be closed and that the Assembly of Massachusetts (the colony of which Boston was the capital) should ~~no longer~~ meet. But the Massachusetts Assembly continued to meet, and it asked the men of the colony to enrol as "minute-men" —so called because they would be ready to fight at a minute's notice.

The War. It was felt in America that if a fight should break out between Great Britain and Massachusetts the British would win, and the other colonies thought they ought to help Massachusetts. In 1774 twelve of the thirteen colonies sent members to a Congress which met at Philadelphia, and before long the remaining colony, Georgia, sent members to the Congress.

There was some fighting between British and Americans in 1775. A British force marched inland from Boston to destroy some ammunition in a store at Concord, so that the Americans might not seize it. The soldiers were attacked by minute-men at Lexington when going and returning, and a number of them were

killed and others wounded. Not long afterwards some of the Americans encamped on Bunker Hill, near Boston, and it was only after severe fighting that they were driven off.



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THE BOSTON TEA PARTY

All hope of patching up the quarrel was lost, and on 4th July, 1776, Congress issued the Declaration of Independence, which stated that the colonies were free and were no longer subject to Great Britain. But they could not gain their freedom merely by

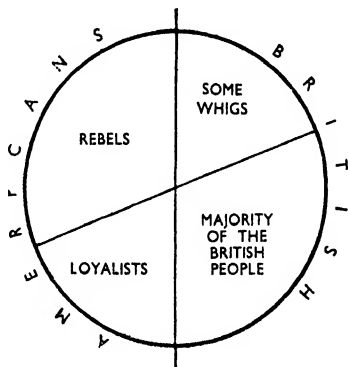
making a declaration. They had to fight for it, and a war began which lasted nearly seven years. A Virginian gentleman, George Washington, was appointed to command the American army. He proved to be not only a good general but one of the wisest and best men in American history.

It is sometimes thought that, in the war which followed, all the Americans were on one side and the British on the other. This was not the case. Some of the Americans thought that the British Government had not acted unfairly towards the colonies, and they did not wish to rebel; they were known as Loyalists. On this side of the Atlantic most of the people were against the Americans, but some of the Whigs thought the Americans were in the right and it was wrong to try to tax them. Charles James Fox, a member of Parliament,

appeared in the House of Commons wearing an American uniform, and some houses in London contained portraits of Washington.

The story of the war is not very interesting. There were not many great battles, for the number of men engaged on either side was not large. For the first year or two the British had the better of the struggle, but when a British army under General Burgoyne was captured by the Americans at Saratoga in 1777 the northern colonies were lost. For a time the British hoped to hold the southern colonies, but their army under Lord Cornwallis was surrounded and forced to yield at Yorktown in 1781. America was lost.

The French joined in the war on the side of the Americans against Great Britain in 1778, and in the next year or two Spain and Holland also joined in. There was fighting in various parts



THE TWO SIDES IN THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE

of the world. The French were defeated in India, and Gibraltar was besieged for three years but was not taken, but the British fleet lost the command of the Atlantic for a time. The French fleet was stronger than the British, and it was because no British ships appeared at Yorktown to help him that Cornwallis was forced to surrender. In 1782, at the great Battle of the Saints, in the West Indies, Admiral Rodney defeated the French and restored British naval power, but this was too late to recover America. Peace was made in 1783 at Versailles.

The Loss of the Colonies. Great Britain lost the war for several reasons. She did not send enough men to America to beat the rebels. Many of her troops were not even British; they were Germans who were hired by George III to fight in America. The British generals were brave men, but they were not so skilful as Washington. Great Britain was fighting other enemies besides the rebel colonists. In spite of all this she might have won in the end if she had not lost command of the sea. In all her other wars in modern times Great Britain has been victorious because she has been more powerful at sea than her enemies.

As we look back at the American war we cannot be sorry that the Americans won it. If the British had beaten them, as ~~seem~~^{seems} likely in the early part of the war, the colonists would have been sullen and angry. A British army must have remained in America, for if it had been withdrawn the Americans would have revolted again. The only way to make them contented would have been to give them what they wanted—no taxation by Great Britain, and freedom to trade with any part of the world. (But if this had been done Great Britain would have had to bear the whole cost of defending the colonies.) And if Great Britain had been willing to grant these things she might have done so earlier, and then there would have been no war.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. In what ways were the southern colonies in North America different from those farther north?
2. Write a short list of the rules about colonial trade.
3. Write three or four lines about each of the causes of the American rebellion against Great Britain.
4. Write an account of the Boston Tea Party.
5. Why were the British defeated in the War of American Independence?
6. Write three or four lines about each of the following: (*a*) the Iroquois, (*b*) the *Gaspee*, (*c*) minute-men, (*d*) the Loyalists, (*e*) the Battle of the Saints.

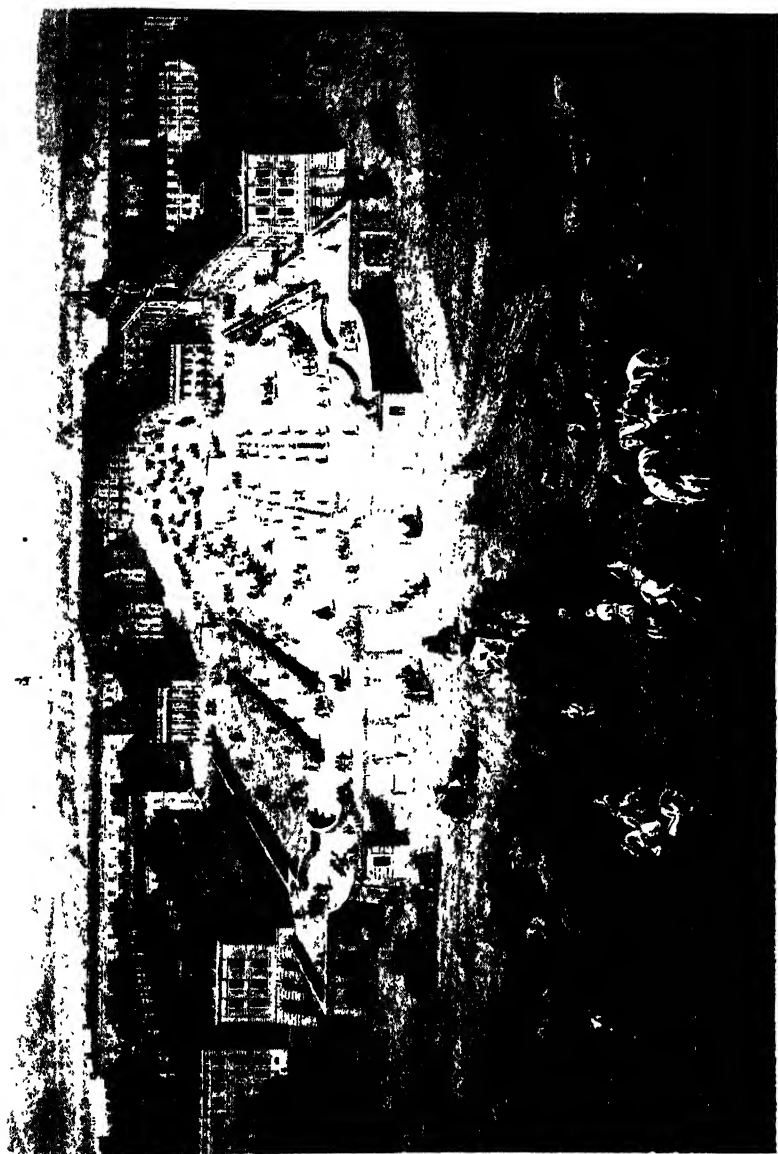
CHAPTER 6

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

England. England in the seventeenth century was ruled by kings of the Stuart family, and they were followed in the eighteenth century by kings of the House of Hanover—the four Georges. The Stuarts had tried to make themselves more powerful than Parliament, but in the end Parliament won a victory over the kings, and the Stuarts lost the throne. In the eighteenth century Parliament was more important than the kings; only Parliament could make laws and levy taxes in Great Britain.

France before the Revolution. The history of France in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries was very different from that of England. The French Parliament, which was called the States-General, did not meet after 1614. The kings of France were of the family of Bourbon, and they ruled the country as they pleased. Laws were not made because the people wanted them but because the King wanted them. The King could make a new law by issuing an edict, which became the law. The people were taxed in the same way; when the King wanted more money he issued an edict ordering a new tax or increasing an old tax.

How the Money was spent. During these two centuries France fought many wars. Wars cost money, and the French people had to pay the very heavy taxes that were imposed by the King. Much money was spent in another way, in keeping up the court. There was a great palace at Versailles, a few miles from Paris; it was built by order of Louis XIV at a cost of many millions of pounds, and the cost of the servants to keep it in order and the gardeners to attend to the grounds was very great. Louis XIV and Louis XV were very proud of their palace, which was the finest in Europe. Besides the King, many French nobles lived in



it, and whenever foreign kings visited France they stayed at Versailles and admired it. In Paris the French kings had other palaces, the Louvre and the Tuileries, and these also had to be kept up. More money was spent on these palaces and on the King's pleasures than in ruling France.

Taxes and Loans. The heaviest tax in France was a tax on land which had to be paid by every peasant who owned a piece of land, large or small. But it was not paid by the nobles, many of whom were very rich and owned large estates, nor was it paid by archbishops and bishops. The people who were well off and who could afford to pay the land-tax did not do so, while the peasants had to pay more than they could afford. Another tax was levied on salt, and every person had to buy seven pounds of salt every year, whether he wanted it or not. People who tried to avoid buying it were punished very heavily, some of them being sent to toil at the oars as galley slaves.

The chief taxes were those on land and salt, but there were others—a poll-tax and an income tax. Customs duties were levied when goods were taken from one province to another.

Though the taxes on the French people were very heavy they did not produce as much money as was wanted by the king for their wars and their palaces. Every year money was borrowed from people who were willing to lend it, and so France had a very large national debt.

The Common People. The country people in France were very poor. Not only had a peasant to pay very heavy taxes, but he was not allowed to grind his corn except in a mill which belonged to the lord of his village; he might not bake his bread in his own oven but only in the lord's oven; if he wished to press his grapes and make wine he had to do it in the lord's wine-press; and when he wished to kill a bullock or a sheep or a pig he had to do it in his lord's slaughter-house. And he could not do these things for nothing; every time he used mill or oven or wine-press or slaughter-house he had to pay money to the lord.

The lord kept pigeons, and when these birds pecked at the corn

in the peasant's fields he was not allowed to drive them off. When the lord went out hunting he might ride across the peasant's fields, not caring about the damage he was doing to the crops.

If the peasant wished to sell any of his butter or cheese or eggs



Weaver Smith

FRENCH PEASANTS

or chickens in the market of a nearby town there might be a toll-gate on the road to the town, and he would have to pay toll in order to pass. Even in the market he had to pay toll before he could do any trading.

A part of the peasant's crops, known as the tithe, had to be given to the parish priest.

French peasants were thus very poor. Men and women worked hard all day and in all kinds of weather on their land. Often they had not enough food. Their clothing was rough, and their houses were mere huts, mostly with only one room. Yet they were not so badly off as the lower classes in Germany and Austria and

Russia. The peasants in those countries were serfs who had to work on the lands of their masters day by day throughout the week, and they could cultivate their own patches of land only by moonlight. They might be whipped or imprisoned or killed by their masters. There were a few serfs in the east of France, but in most parts of the country French peasants were free men who were not forced to work for nothing on the lands of their lords.

The War of American Independence. The younger men had to serve in the French army and fight in the wars in which France was engaged. During the War of American Independence French troops were sent to America to help the colonists against the British. After the war they returned home, and no doubt they talked to their friends about what they had seen. They would state that they had been fighting against the British, who had oppressed the Americans, but if they were asked what the British had really done their only answer must have been that they had put a threepenny tax on tea! It must have astonished the French to learn that Americans could fight for several years against nothing worse than a very small tax. The French had to pay very heavy taxes and were oppressed in many ways; perhaps they began to think it might be worth while to fight for freedom from these burdens.

Louis XVI. Louis XVI, King of France at the time of the Revolution, was a much better man than Louis XIV or Louis XV, but he was not a good king. He was not very intelligent, and it has been said that he was so stupid that if he had been a private soldier in the French army he would never have been promoted to the rank of lance-corporal. His Queen, Marie Antoinette, was an Austrian princess. She was not stupid, but she cared nothing for the sufferings of the poor, and she was hated by the French people, who called her "the Austrian woman."

There came a time in the reign of Louis XVI when the French Government had no more money. Taxes were so high that the people could pay no more, and if there were people with money

to spare they would not lend it, as there would be no hope of getting it back. At last the King made up his mind to call the States-General to see what could be done to put the affairs of France in order.

The National Assembly. The States-General (which had not been called together for a century and three-quarters) met at Versailles in May, 1789. This was the beginning of the French Revolution. At first the members of the States-General did not intend to harm the King and Queen or the nobles. They called themselves the National Assembly, and they resolved to make some changes in the government of France. They wished to reduce the King's power, to abolish the existing taxes, and to make a new system of taxation in which everybody, nobles as well as peasants, would pay their share. They did a great deal of talking about the Rights of Man, and they declared that "Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity" should be established in France—in other words, that the people should be free, equal, and friendly towards one another. They passed some useful laws, one of which was that there should be no more serfdom. The serfs in the east of France thus became free.

¹
The Taking of the Bastille. While the members of the National Assembly were talking at Versailles the people were doing something more than talking in Paris. Many thousands of very poor people lived in the slums of Paris, and a great many more had come into the city from the country round about. There was not enough food in Paris, and many of the people were starving. The streets were crowded with hungry men and women, and riots broke out.

One day in July the mob attacked the Bastille, a great castle in Paris which was used as a prison. It was believed that hundreds of people had been imprisoned in it by the King's order. Actually there were only about six prisoners there—poor wretches who had been sent there for small offences and who had been forgotten. There were not many soldiers to guard the Bastille, and though there were some cannon it was found that most of them were

dummies made of wood. Fighting occurred, in which some of the mob were killed, but the Bastille was taken, and the head of the governor of the prison was cut off and carried through the streets on a pole.

*Weaver Smith*

THE TAKING OF THE BASTILLE

The news of the taking of the Bastille spread throughout France, and in many villages the peasants rose against their lords and robbed and burnt their castles and country houses. Already some of the nobles and their families thought it wise to leave France and take refuge in Germany or England until order should be restored.

The March of the Women to Versailles. Summer passed into autumn, and the Paris mob was more hungry and wretched than ever. It was believed that though food was scarce in Paris there was plenty to eat at Versailles, where the King and Queen were

living and the National Assembly was meeting. They thought that if the court was in Paris there would be food for everybody. Early in October a crowd of women (and with a good many men dressed as women) marched from Paris to Versailles to see the

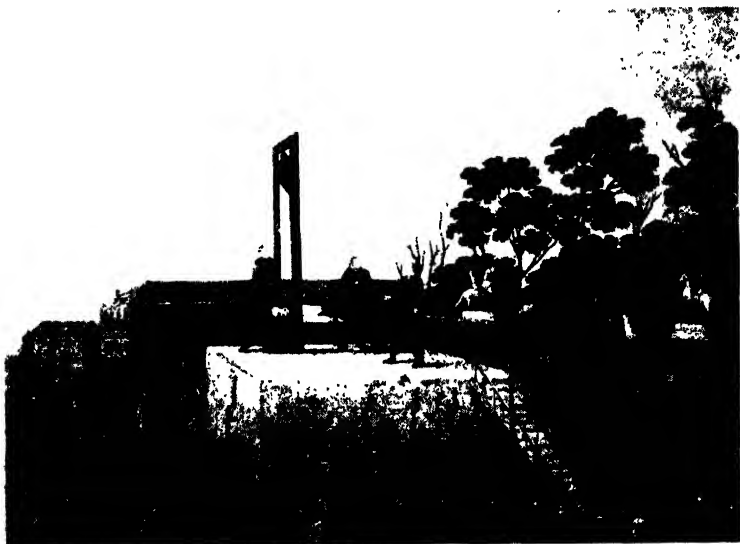


Weaver Smith

THE MARCH OF THE WOMEN TO VERSAILLES

King and make him return to Paris. They arrived at Versailles in the evening and swarmed into the palace and all over the grounds. Some of them shouted that they wanted the Queen—they said they would cut her in pieces. The poor lady was in terror all night. Next morning the King agreed to go to Paris. The royal carriage, with the King and Queen and their son, travelled slowly along the road to Paris, surrounded by women who shouted that they were bringing with them “the baker, the baker’s wife, and the baker’s boy.” Not till nightfall did the royal party reach the Tuileries. A day or two afterwards the National Assembly moved to Paris.

The King and Queen in Paris. Louis XVI and his Queen lived in the Tuileries for the next three years. In the spring of 1791 the King tried to leave Paris for a visit to St. Cloud, near the city, but the mob surrounded the Tuileries and would not let him go. He



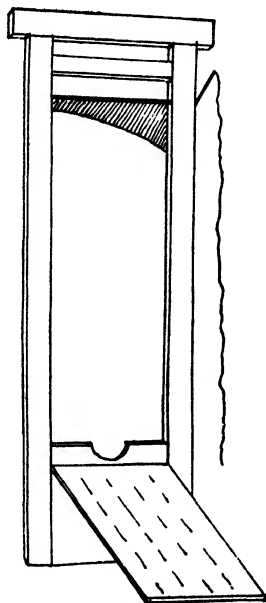
THE EXECUTION OF LOUIS XVI

felt that he was a prisoner, and he made up his mind to escape not merely from Paris but from France. In June, 1791, the King and Queen and their children left the Tuileries secretly and by night. They travelled slowly eastwards over the country roads and reached Varennes, near the frontier. A few miles farther, and they would have been in Germany. But they were recognised at Varennes and were forced to return to Paris. From that time there was no doubt that they were captives.

Death of the King and Queen. War broke out in 1792 against Austria and Prussia. At first the French were defeated, and they

were very much alarmed. The King was deposed and France was declared to be a republic, and both Louis and Marie Antoinette were put into prison. Many of their friends were already in the prisons of Paris, and in September, 1792, the mob broke in and murdered the prisoners.

It was believed that Louis was hoping that the Austrians and Prussians would conquer the French and force them to restore him to the throne. In January, 1793, he was brought to trial before the Convention, a new assembly which had recently been called together. The members were almost equally divided, and though Louis was condemned to death it was by a majority of only one vote; 361 votes were cast for his death, and 360 against. He was beheaded by the guillotine. The Queen was kept in prison for some months longer, during which time she was treated harshly; at length she, too, died by the guillotine.



A GUILLOTINE

The Reign of Terror. The cruel and bloodthirsty men who were now in power thought that not only the King and Queen but also the nobles were in league with the enemies of France. The Reign of Terror began. All nobles, men and women alike, who were caught were brought to trial. Their trials were not fair, and large numbers of them were sentenced to death. Every day many aristocrats were taken out of prison to ride in tumbrils to the guillotine, and every day a mob assembled to see the executions. Some of the nobles managed to escape and join those who had already taken refuge in other countries. Many people have read of the adventures of the Scarlet Pimpernel. The Scarlet Pimpernel was not a historical character but a person in a novel who helped

prisoners to escape from the Terror. But no doubt there were many actual adventures like those of the Scarlet Pimpernel.

The End of the Revolution. The Terror went on for more than a year, but at length it died away. Some of the leaders of the Terror themselves died by the guillotine, and perhaps the people were getting tired of the shedding of blood. Certainly many of the people of Paris were tired not only of bloodshed but of the disorder that had been going on for so long, in which no man's life or property was safe. One day in 1795 a mob which had gathered as usual was fired upon by order of Napoleon Bonaparte, who was then a young officer of artillery. The mob scattered before the "whiff of grapeshot," and it was never again of much importance. Order was restored, and the French Revolution was at an end.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What were the chief taxes which the French people had to pay before the Revolution?
2. In what ways was the money spent that was raised by taxation in France?
3. Mention four or five ways in which the peasants of France were unfairly treated before the Revolution.
4. Write four or five lines about each of the following: (a) the taking of the Bastille, (b) the march of the women to Versailles, (c) the Reign of Terror, (d) the whiff of grapeshot.
5. What did the National Assembly of 1789 try to do?
6. Write a short life of Louis XVI.

CHAPTER 7

THE WARS WITH FRANCE

1792-1815

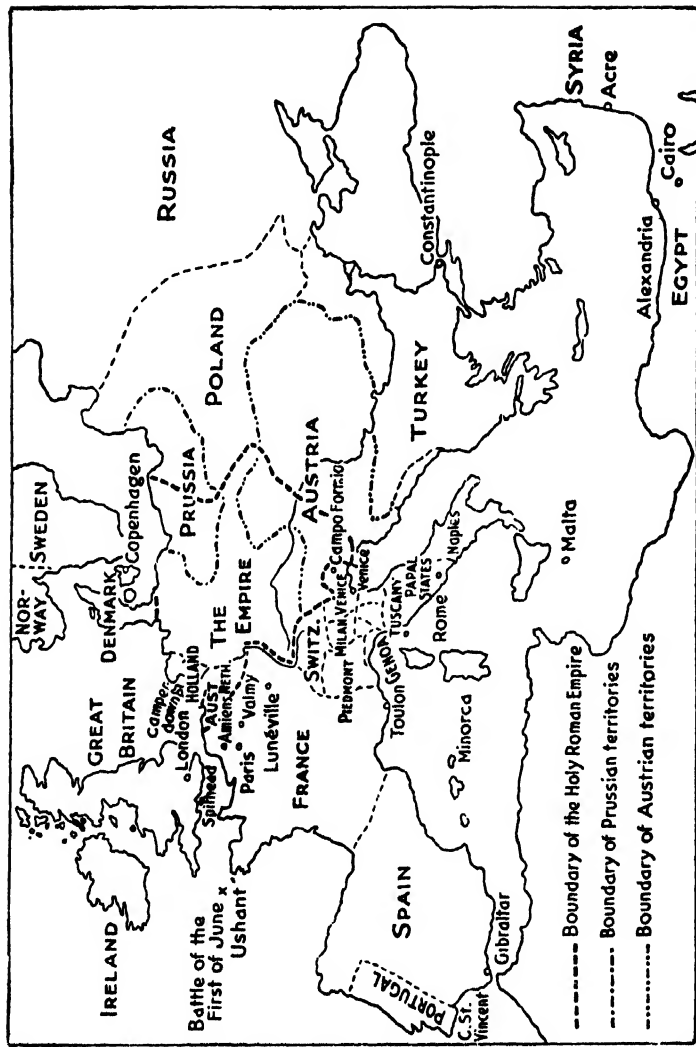
Causes of the Wars. When the French Revolution began nobody in England, and very few people in other lands, thought it would lead to war. Englishmen thought that the French were struggling for freedom and hoped that they would get it. Within a year or two all this was changed. People in other countries were shocked by the death of the French King and Queen, and other kings were afraid that the Revolution might spread into their lands. The French, on the other hand, stated that they would give help to the people of any country that rose against its rulers.

The Outbreak of War. After such a statement war was certain, for no king would remain friendly with a nation that invited his people to rebel against him. The French declared war on Austria and Prussia in 1792, and in the following year fifteen countries, including Great Britain, were at war with France. A series of wars thus began that were to go on almost without a break for twenty-three years.

The Early Part of the War. Though the French were defeated at first they soon recovered. Austrian and Prussian armies that had invaded France were driven out. A British army under the Duke of York besieged Dunkirk but was forced to withdraw, and although the Duke received reinforcements of 10,000 men he could do nothing with them.

The good old Duke of York.
He had ten thousand men
He marched them up to the top of a hill,
And he marched them down again.

The French conquered Belgium and Holland, and most of their enemies were glad to make peace.



FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY WAR, 1792-1802

Italy. By the beginning of 1796 the only important countries remaining at war with France were Austria and Great Britain. Lombardy, a province in the north of Italy, was ruled by Austria, and a French army under General Bonaparte, who was only twenty-seven years old, invaded Italy, defeated the Austrians, and conquered Lombardy. Austria was glad to make peace, and in 1797 Great Britain was alone against the enemy.

Naval Events of 1797. But France was no longer alone; Holland and Spain were her allies, and all these countries had fleets. The British navy was larger than any of them, but if the three enemy fleets could join together they might be too strong for that of Great Britain.

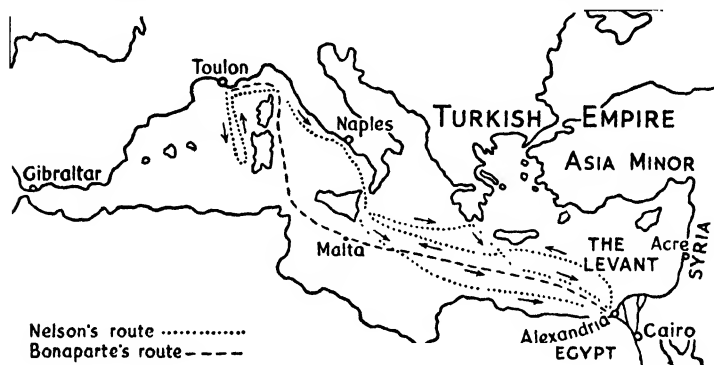
This was the moment chosen by British sailors to mutiny against their officers. They had good reason to do so. Many of the men had not enlisted but had been forced into the navy by the press-gang. On board ship their quarters were bad and so was their food; their pay was small, and they did not always receive it when it was due; and they were often flogged for very small faults. The sailors of the fleet at Spithead mutinied, but they returned to duty when Lord Howe promised them better treatment. The mutiny at the Nore (the mouth of the Thames) was more serious and lasted for some weeks. At length the men yielded, and Parker, their leader, was hanged.

Early in the year 1797 a British fleet under Sir John Jervis defeated a Spanish fleet of twenty-seven ships at the Battle of Cape St. Vincent; four of the enemy vessels were captured and many others were damaged. The officer who was second in command to Jervis was Nelson, and Jervis stated that the victory was due to Nelson's skill and courage.

The Dutch fleet was sighted in the North Sea by Sir Adam Duncan when he had only two ships with him, most of his fleet being at the Nore in a state of mutiny. Duncan signalled an order to pursue the enemy, though he had no ships behind him to obey it. The Dutch did not know this; they could see the signal flags, and they thought that British ships which were just out of sight were coming up to Duncan's support. They therefore

retired. Later in the year, when the Nore fleet had returned to duty, Duncan defeated the Dutch in the Battle of Camperdown and captured nine of their ships.

Egypt. In 1798 General Bonaparte was ready to sail from Toulon with a fleet and an army. Nelson was waiting outside Toulon to give battle, but his ships were damaged by storm and



MEDITERRANEAN, 1798

he went to Sardinia to refit them. By the time Nelson was ready to fight Bonaparte had sailed. Nelson did not know where he had gone, but thought he might have sailed to Egypt. He hastened to Alexandria, but the French were not there, and he sailed away to look for them. Nelson's guess was right; the French were making for Egypt, but they were slower than the British, who reached Alexandria before them. After sailing to and fro in the Mediterranean for some weeks Nelson returned to Alexandria and found the French fleet there, though the French army had landed. At the Battle of the Nile the French fleet was destroyed. Bonaparte could not take his army back to France by sea, and he marched into Syria, hoping to pass through Asia Minor and Turkey and so through Europe to France. He attacked Acre, which was held by a British force under Sir Sidney Smith, but he failed to capture it and returned to Egypt. Leaving his army there, he sailed in a small ship with a few of his officers to France.

Bonaparte as First Consul. Bonaparte had won great victories in Italy in 1796 and he now pretended that he had won victories in the East. He was hailed as the conqueror of Italy and Egypt, and in 1799 he was made ruler of France with the title of First Consul. He was not a king, but he had more power than most kings.

Another Outbreak of War in Europe. While Bonaparte had been in the East, Austria had again made war upon France, and this time Russia joined in, while Great Britain was still at war with France. The Russians soon withdrew from the war, and Bonaparte, as First Consul, led the French against the Austrians and defeated them at the Battle of Marengo in 1800. They were glad to make peace, and in 1801 Great Britain for the second time was alone at war with France.

The Peace of Amiens. Both countries were tired of the war. The British could not beat the French on land (in fact, they had hardly tried to do so), and the French could not beat the British at sea. Some people said it was like a fight between an elephant and a whale. Neither could beat the other, and peace was made by the Treaty of Amiens in 1802. "It was a peace that everybody was glad of and nobody was proud of."

Pitt. The Prime Minister of Great Britain during most of this war was William Pitt, son of that William Pitt who had planned victory in the Seven Years War. The elder Pitt was a great war minister; the younger Pitt was not a great war minister, but he was better than any other statesman of the time would have been. He made mistakes, and he was not so clever as his father in planning campaigns and in picking out good leaders. But when other countries gave in to France he held on. He never thought of yielding, and when peace was made he was no longer Prime Minister.

Napoleon. It is usual for kings and emperors and some other rulers to be known by their Christian names and for other great

men to be called by their surnames. Up to this time the man who was now ruling France had been called General Bonaparte, but from 1802 he was known as Napoleon. In 1804 he took the title of Emperor of the French. Great Britain and France were again at war by this time, and in the newspapers of this country he was referred to as Bonaparte (or simply as "Boney") throughout his reign.

Napoleon's Plan for Invading England. Peace between the two countries lasted only a year. It was just a breathing space, and in 1803 war broke out again. Spain joined in on the side of France, and for the third time Great Britain stood alone against France, which was now ruled by a man who was determined to be master of Europe. Napoleon prepared to invade England. He gathered a great army on the north coast of France, and a large number of flat-bottomed boats were built to convey his troops across the Channel. Nearly every day his men were trained to embark and to land as quickly as possible, and they never knew when he would give the order to sail. But if he did so while the British fleet was in the Channel his ships would be sunk and his men drowned. He hoped to get across while there was a fog over the water, but for many months the Channel was clear of mist.

He then planned to get Nelson to sail to the West Indies while French and Spanish fleets came together to beat the Channel fleet. His plan failed. Nelson sailed to the West Indies after a French fleet, but he came back quickly, and he beat the combined French and Spanish fleets at the Battle of Trafalgar, in October, 1805, where he was killed. French and Spanish sea power was destroyed, and Napoleon now had no chance of invading England.

War in Europe again. Pitt was Prime Minister again by this time, and he arranged an alliance with Austria and Russia. These powers declared war on France, and Napoleon marched against them. He defeated them in the Battle of Austerlitz, six weeks after Trafalgar. Pitt was broken-hearted, and died a few weeks later. Austria made peace, but Prussia entered the war soon after, and Napoleon defeated the Prussians at the Battle of Jena.

and entered Berlin. He then defeated the Russians at the Battle of Friedland.

Russia and Prussia made peace with France by the Treaty of



NAPOLEONIC WARS

Tilsit in 1807. Prussia had to agree to very hard terms, but Napoleon and the Tsar of Russia entered into an alliance. For the fourth time Great Britain was alone in the war against France.

Blockades. Napoleon tried to ruin Great Britain by ordering that no country of Europe should trade with her and that any ship which called at a British port should be captured by the French. He had very few warships and he could not enforce his orders, and British trade continued to grow. Great Britain blockaded the greater part of Europe, and as her fleet was very large she could prevent ships from other parts of the world from entering European ports. The people of Europe needed British goods, and for several years they could get them only when they were smuggled into Europe.

The Peninsular War. Great Britain was not long alone in the war. The French Emperor made war on Portugal, which was friendly with Great Britain, and a British army under Sir Arthur Wellesley was sent to Portugal. The French army under Junot was defeated and forced to leave the country. Then Napoleon made the mistake of deposing the King of Spain and appointing his brother, Joseph Bonaparte, to the throne of that country. Joseph was a much better king than the man he replaced, but the Spanish people were very angry and rose against the French. Great Britain was ready to help the Spaniards as well as the Portuguese. Wellesley, who afterwards became Duke of Wellington, was given the command in Spain, and after several years of hard fighting he drove the French out of the country.

The Walcheren Expedition. Another British army, commanded by the Earl of Chatham, William Pitt's brother, was sent to the island of Walcheren, off the Dutch coast. Chatham was to try to capture Antwerp, and he was to be assisted by a fleet of thirty-five ships under Admiral Strahan (whose name was pronounced "Strawn"). The army was badly led; there was much illness among the troops, and Antwerp was not taken.

Great Chatham, with his sabre drawn,
 Stood waiting for Sir Richard Strahan;
 Sir Richard, longing to be at 'em,
 Stood waiting for the Earl of Chatham.

Many of the men died. If this army had been sent to Spain to fight under Wellesley instead of being wasted on Walcheren the Peninsular War might have been over sooner. Chatham was blamed very much for the failure of the Walcheren expedition; people called him "the *late* Earl of Chatham."

Austria. In 1809 Austria declared war against France for the fourth time. For the fourth time she was beaten and was forced to make peace.

Russia. In 1812 the Tsar decided to reopen trade between Great Britain and Russia. Napoleon was very angry at this, and he

gathered a bigger army than he had ever had before to invade Russia. The invasion began in June, 1812. The Russians retreated before Napoleon, and though he won the Battle of Borodino he lost as many men as the Russians. He reached Moscow in the autumn, and within a day or two fires broke out in the city, a great part of which was destroyed. Napoleon remained at Moscow for some weeks, hoping that the Russians would ask for terms of peace, but the Tsar said that he would not make peace while a single French soldier remained in arms on Russian soil.

Late in October, 1812, Napoleon decided to retreat. The story of the French retreat from Moscow is well known. The Russian winter set in early that year; the men had no warm clothing, and many thousands died of cold. Thousands more fell ill and had to be left behind. There was not enough food for the men and hardly any for the horses, most of which died. The Russians attacked whenever and wherever they could, and it was due to the skill and courage of Marshal Ney, "the bravest of the brave," who commanded the rear-guard, that the French army was not utterly destroyed. Napoleon had entered Russia with 600,000 men, of whom only 20,000 returned. He had lost more than half a million men in this mad adventure.

The War of Liberation. Napoleon hastened to France and raised fresh armies, even boys being pressed into the ranks. Austria and Prussia joined with Russia against him; this was the fifth time Austria had made war on France in twenty years. Several battles were fought in Germany in 1813, and it seemed that even now Napoleon might beat his enemies. But at the great Battle of Leipzig he was beaten, and he fled back to France. (The Battle of Leipzig is known as the Battle of Nations because men of many nations took part in it; it is said that among those fighting against Napoleon in the battle were Chinese soldiers armed with bows and arrows!)

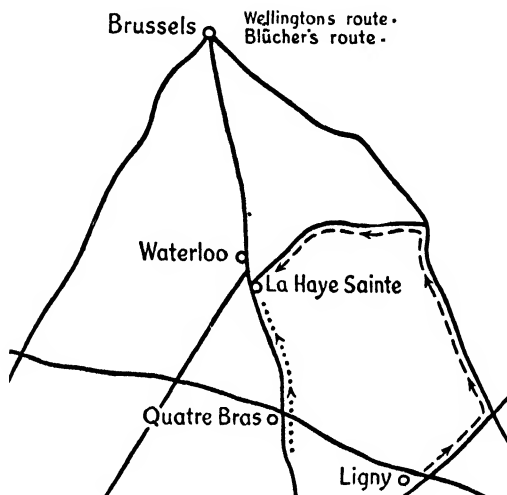
The allies pressed on and invaded France from the east while Wellington invaded it from Spain. The fighting ended; Napoleon wanted to fight on, but France had no more men to give him. He had to surrender and give up the throne. He was allowed to go



Weaver Smith

THE RETREAT FROM MOSCOW

and live on the island of Elba, in the Mediterranean. The man who had been Emperor of the French and master of the greater part of Europe became Emperor of Elba! Louis XVIII, the brother of Louis XVI, became King of France. This was in 1814.



WATERLOO CAMPAIGN

The Hundred Days. Napoleon lived in Elba less than a year. At the beginning of March, 1815, he returned to France, and thousands of men (many of them prisoners of war who had been released) hastened to join him. Louis XVIII sent a regiment of soldiers to arrest him. At Grenoble they met him and pointed their muskets at him. Napoleon, who was certainly no coward, stepped forward and opened his arms wide, inviting them to shoot him. Instead of doing so they cheered wildly and went over to his side. Marshal Ney, who had promised to bring him to Paris in a cage, joined him. In a few days he reached Paris, and Louis XVIII fled.

Napoleon said that he did not want war, but peace. The allies would not believe him, for they were sure that if he remained

Emperor of the French he would train fresh armies and that when he was ready he would make war again.

Great Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Austria declared war on France, and Napoleon marched into Belgium to meet the British



Weaver Smith

THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO

and Prussian armies. The British army was commanded by the Duke of Wellington and the Prussian army by Field-Marshal Blücher. The French Emperor hoped to destroy the two armies separately before they could join together. The Prussians were driven back at Ligny, and the British fell back after the Battle of Quatre Bras in order to keep in touch with their allies. The final battle took place at Waterloo on 18th June, 1815, between French and British. The result was in doubt for some time, but the British stood firm, and the French were already beaten before the Prussians reached the battlefield. With the arrival of the Prussians the French fled in disorder. Napoleon also fled. He hoped to escape to America, but he had to give himself up to the

captain of a British warship. He was brought to England but was not allowed to land—the only time he saw the country that had opposed him so long and had finally overthrown him. He was sent to St. Helena, a lonely island in the South Atlantic, where he died in 1821.

Reasons for Napoleon's Defeat. Why was Napoleon beaten, and which country did most to overthrow him? Russia had done much; his failure against Russia in 1812 was the beginning of his fall from power. For many years after this the Russian army was thought to be the strongest in Europe, and the Tsar certainly thought it was due to Russia that the tyrant had been beaten. Austria must not be forgotten; six times she made war on France, and though she had been severely beaten four times she was ready to fight again in 1813 and 1815. But Great Britain had been Napoleon's greatest enemy. She had been at war with him throughout his reign. The British navy had been too strong for him; it had destroyed his fleets and blockaded his coasts. And it was a British soldier, the Duke of Wellington, who drove the French out of Spain and who in the end was the victor over Napoleon himself.

The Congress of Vienna. The French Revolution started in 1789, and three years later a war began which lasted more than twenty years. Millions of men had been slain, hundreds of towns and villages had been destroyed, and every nation was much poorer than it had been. Kings and statesmen met at Vienna in 1815 to settle the affairs of Europe, and they all thought that war ought to be avoided in future. Most of them thought that whenever a revolution took place war was likely to follow; if war was to be avoided revolutions must not be allowed to happen. They resolved that if a rebellion or revolution began in any country they would put it down at once.

Great Britain did not agree with this. British statesmen thought that every country should settle its own affairs and that others ought not to interfere with it.

For a century, between 1815 and 1914, there was no great war

in Europe. There were several short wars in which two or three countries were concerned, but there was no war in which the whole of Europe was involved. The nineteenth century was a century of peace.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Give two reasons why war broke out between France and other countries in 1792 and 1793.
2. What were the naval events of 1797?
3. Mention four British admirals in the French Revolutionary War, and state one important thing about each.
4. Describe Napoleon's plan for the invasion of England in 1804-5, and state why it failed.
5. Write an account of Napoleon's Russian expedition of 1812.
6. What were the following places notable for in these wars:
(a) Elba, (b) Tilsit, (c) Toulon, (d) Dunkirk, (e) Walcheren?

TIME CHART

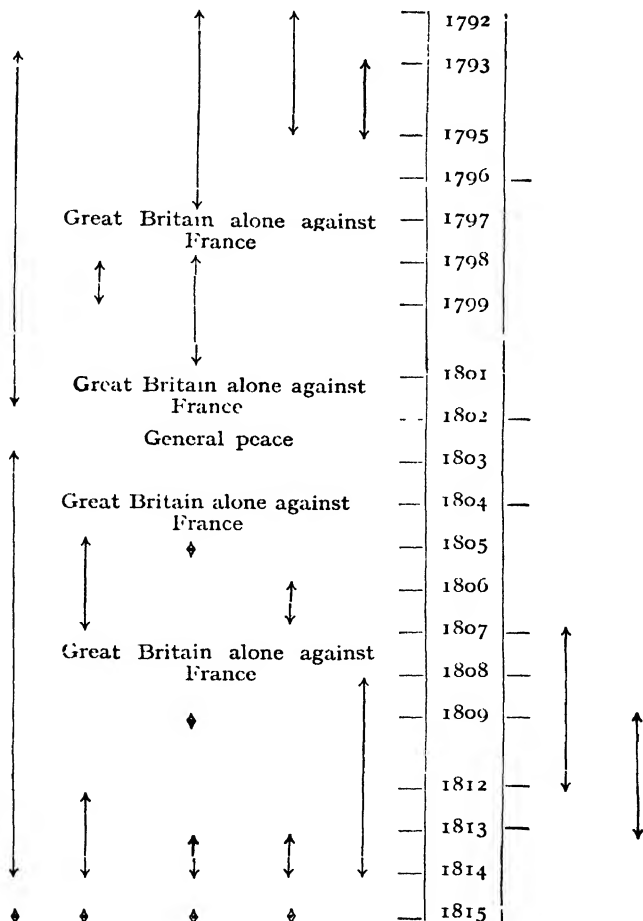
THE WARS WITH FRANCE, 1792-1815

Powers against France

Powers allied with France

GREAT
BRITAIN RUSSIA AUSTRIA PRUSSIA SPAIN

RUSSIA AUSTRIA SP



CHAPTER 8

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATION

Travelling in the Middle Ages. People did not travel very much in the Middle Ages. Most of them lived and worked in the country, and some of them never left the village in which they had been born. At most, village people sometimes went into a nearby town to sell some of their butter, eggs, and cheese in the market. Nearly everything they needed was produced in the village in which they lived, and the few things that were wanted from outside were brought to the village by pedlars.

Roads before the Eighteenth Century. Until the eighteenth century there were few good roads. It was not worth while making good roads; they would have cost money which the country could not afford, and even if they had been made they would have been used very little. Even main roads were only rough tracks, dusty in summer and muddy in winter. They were often so bad that it was easier for men and women to travel from place to place on horseback than in a carriage; a carriage might stick in the mud, but a horse would pick its way carefully. When a farmer went to market he rode on horseback with his wife mounted behind him. If goods had to be taken a long distance they were not loaded on carts or waggons, but were carried on pack-horses or pack-mules. Whenever possible, heavy goods were placed on boats or barges and were carried by river.

Need for Better Means of Transport. When the Industrial Revolution began in the eighteenth century better ways of carrying goods were needed. The factories in a big town would turn out great quantities of goods which could not be sold near at hand; much had to be sent to other parts of the country,

and a good deal was sent abroad. The materials needed for the work of the factory had to be brought to it. Coal and iron had to be carried from the mines to other parts of the country. Food which was grown in the south and east of England had to



London Museum

THE HYDE PARK CORNER TURNPIKE, LONDON

be sent to the big towns in the north. Many more people travelled from town to town than formerly. The old rough roads and the pack-horses were not good enough. Better means of carrying goods and people were needed.

Turnpike Roads. The main roads in the eighteenth century were cared for by men, or companies of men, who were allowed to put up turnpikes, or toll-gates. People who travelled along a turnpike road had to pay a toll when they passed the turnpike. The charge was higher for a horseman than for a man who was walking, and it was higher still for a carriage or a waggon. The drover in charge of cattle or sheep passing along the road had

to pay for them. The money was used to pay workmen who kept the road in good repair.

Turnpike roads were nearly always main roads, along which many people passed. Very few people used the country lanes; it was not worth while setting up toll-gates on them, and they remained as bad as they had always been. But by the end of the eighteenth century the main roads were in good condition, and coaches were driven along them from town to town.

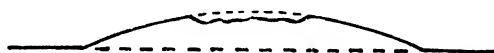
Road-makers. One of the most famous road-makers of the eighteenth century was John Metcalf. He was blind, and was known as Blind Jack of Knaresborough. He lived to be ninety-three years old, and during his long life he did many more things than most men who can see. He was tall and strong, and could ride and hunt, dive and swim. He was fond of horses, and sometimes took part in horse-races, riding his own animals. He was well known in Scotland and the north of England as a fiddler, and for a time he became a soldier. In 1745 he enlisted men to fight against the Pretender, and he fought in the battles of Falkirk and Culloden. While in the army he entertained his comrades with his fiddle, and he played at a ball in Aberdeen shortly before the Battle of Culloden. Leaving the army, he earned a living by dealing in wood and hay, and now and then he took part in smuggling. He must have travelled about a great deal, and though he could not see he learned how bad the roads were. In the latter part of his life he turned to road-mending, and he made 180 miles of good road in Yorkshire, Lancashire, and Derbyshire, besides building many bridges. Not a bad record for a blind man!

John Rennie constructed new roads, drained marshes, and built bridges and harbours. He built Waterloo Bridge over the Thames; his bridge lasted till a few years ago, when it became unsafe and had to be pulled down and replaced by a new bridge.

Thomas Telford constructed canals, bridges, and harbours, but his greatest work was in the making of roads. He laid down nearly a thousand miles of roadway in the Highlands of Scotland.

The greatest road-maker of this time was John McAdam,

most of whose work was done in the twenty years after 1815. He did not plan many new roads, but was employed in repairing and improving existing roads. The fault of many roads was that they had too steep a camber, or curve; very likely the old road-makers thought that a steep camber would cause rain-water to flow off to the sides of the road very quickly. But, because of the sharp slope at the sides, coaches and waggons



Section of road with ruts in the middle



Section of macadamized road

ROAD CAMBERS

kept to the middle of these roads. The wheels always ran on the same part of the road, and ruts were formed which soon grew deep and filled with water after rain. McAdam thought that a steep camber was a mistake, and he made roads with only a slight curve. Water still ran off to the sides, and the traffic ran on all parts of the road because it was nearly flat. He put a good foundation to his roads, with a covering of small broken stones well rolled in. These roads were very successful, and McAdam's method of road-making was followed until the end of the nineteenth century.

Rivers. Goods could be sent to all parts of the country on these improved roads. But something better was wanted. It cost much less to send goods by river than by road, since a boat or barge could carry as much as many waggons. But rivers were not straight; some of them were shallow, and many towns were not connected by rivers at all. Some of the shallow rivers were deepened by dredging, and cuts were made to straighten the winding course of some rivers.

Canals. These cuts were not true canals. A canal is an artificial waterway which connects two towns or two rivers. Goods are carried in barges drawn on the canal by horses which walk along a towpath. It would be easy to plan



Weaver Smith

HORSE AND BARGE ON A CANAL

and cut a canal if the country were perfectly flat and if there were no rivers or marshes. But, if the country through which the canal is to pass is hilly, the canal must be taken over the hill (by locks), or through it (by a tunnel), or round it. And if a river crosses its path the canal must cross by a bridge or aqueduct (with locks); if the canal were connected with the river (without a lock) its water might drain off into the river, leaving the barges stuck on the canal bed.

The Bridgewater Canal. The Duke of Bridgewater had a coal mine at Worsley, nine miles from Manchester. Coal was needed in the city, but the road between Worsley and Manchester was bad, and the duke arranged with James Brindley to cut a canal. Brindley was not an educated man; he could barely read and

write, and he drew no plans for the work. There were many difficulties to be overcome, but Brindley was equal to them all. (He carried the canal over the River Irwell by an aqueduct thirty-nine feet high.) The Bridgewater Canal took two years (1759-61) to construct, and it was a complete success. Coal could now be carried by canal from Worsley to Manchester. The duke could sell it and the people of Manchester could buy it much more cheaply than before.

Brindley then extended the Bridgewater Canal from Manchester to Runcorn, near Liverpool. This was even harder, as the canal had to be taken over rivers and through tunnels, and it had to cross a stretch of marshy ground known as Sale Moor Moss. Many people thought that Brindley would fail, but the work was at length completed. While he was carrying out these works for the Duke of Bridgewater he was paid no more than one guinea per week!

Other Canals. His success with the Bridgewater Canal caused Brindley to be employed on others which were being planned. He built the Grand Trunk Canal, which connected the Humber with the Mersey, and he planned nearly four hundred miles of canal in various parts of the country, though much of the work was carried through by other men.

During the latter part of the eighteenth century the country was covered with a network of canals. They did not go from coast to coast but were planned to link up rivers on opposite sides of the country.

Gauges of the Canals. Some canals were wider and deeper than others, and if goods had to be taken over several canals it was necessary to use small barges which would pass through the narrowest canal. It is a pity that canal builders did not agree to make all their waterways of the same width and depth. In after years, when it was desired to widen some of the smaller canals, this could not be done because warehouses had been built right up to the banks of the canals on one side, and to the tow-paths on the other.

The Use of the Canals. For many years canals were of great use in moving heavy goods over long distances to and from the factories. With the coming of the railways they were not used so much, and some of them ceased to be used at all. From some of them the water has been drained off and their beds are overgrown with weed and choked with rubbish. Yet the more important canals are still in use for carrying heavy goods, such as brick, stone, iron ore, and timber. The railways carry these things much more quickly, but they can be taken more cheaply by canal, and if they are not wanted in a hurry they are often sent by water instead of by rail.

The Manchester Ship Canal. Towards the end of the nineteenth century the Manchester Ship Canal was built between Manchester and Liverpool. It is not like other canals in this country. It is much wider and deeper, and it is used by ocean-going ships instead of by horse-drawn barges. Ships bring cotton and other goods from the New World to Manchester instead of unloading them at Liverpool and sending them the rest of the way by road or rail.

Early Railways. The first steam railway was opened in 1825, but there were railways in Great Britain long before this. The earliest railways were near coal mines. Coal was taken in trucks or waggons from the pithead to the bank of a river near by, and then loaded on barges or ships. Trucks of coal were heavy, and it was found that they would run more easily if flat wooden lines were laid down in the road. These lines were, perhaps, a foot wide (something like railway sleepers placed end to end), and they were, of course, at the proper distance apart so that the trucks would run on them. The road from the pithead to the river would be downhill, and the laden trucks ran easily, while it was not hard to pull the empty trucks uphill to the pit. The trucks sometimes ran off the lines, and to prevent this a groove was cut in the wooden lines. Such railways were in use as early as 1630, when Charles I was King, and it is believed that one of them was laid down at Newcastle in 1602, before the death of Queen Elizabeth.

In the latter part of the eighteenth century rails of iron instead of wood were used, and trucks were fitted with flanged wheels. At the end of the century railways were being planned in other places than the mines, and in the first quarter of the nineteenth century about twenty short lines were built. They were used for carrying goods rather than passengers, and trucks were drawn by horses; sometimes they were pulled along by a cable which was wound on a drum, this being worked by a steam-engine. The best known of these railways was the Surrey Iron Railway, nine miles long, between Wandsworth and Lambeth; it was used chiefly to bring vegetables and other food from the country to be sold in south London. Other well-known lines ran between Gloucester and Cheltenham and between Canterbury and Whitstable.

Steam Railways. Steam-coaches were used on some of the main roads of the country as early as 1803, but for some years no attempt was made to put them on the railways. Steam-engines on wheels were built by Richard Trevithick, John Blenkinsop, and William Hedley, but they were not very successful. George Stephenson built a locomotive, the "Blücher," for use on the colliery railway at Killingworth. This, too, did not work well, but Stephenson tried again.

Between 1821 and 1825 a railway was built between Stockton and Darlington. The trucks were to be drawn by horses, as on most of the railways already built, but Stephenson suggested using a steam locomotive. When the railway was opened in 1825 his "Locomotion No. 1" was able to draw a train weighing ninety tons at a speed of sixteen miles per hour. For some years horses as well as steam locomotives were used on the Stockton and Darlington Railway, but it was soon found that steam power was much greater than that of horses, and it was used for both passenger trains and goods trains.

Other railways were built, and when the Liverpool and Manchester Railway was planned a prize of £500 was offered for the best steam locomotive. Stephenson won the prize with his "Rocket," which attained a speed of fourteen miles per hour in

the contest, while other locomotives broke down. From this time many lines were laid down, and in the next twenty years the country was covered with a network of railways.

Dislike of the Railways. Many people disliked the new railways. It was feared that such high speeds as twenty or thirty miles per hour would be dangerous, that sparks from the engines would set buildings on fire, that the noise of the trains would cause people to fall ill, that grass and trees and corn would not grow near a railway, and that cows and horses would go mad with fear. When it was proposed to bring a railway line to a town the people tried to get it placed as far from the town as possible; it is for this reason that even to-day the railway stations of many places are far from the middle of the town.

Railway Gauges. Most of the early lines were short, and they were not all built to the same gauge. This means that the distance between the two lines varied. Some lines were built with a five-foot gauge; the Great Western Railway had a gauge of seven feet; many others were of four feet eight and a half inches, which became the standard gauge of British railways. While different gauges existed, the trucks and carriages of one company could not run on the lines of another company. In course of time the railway companies that had other gauges changed over to the standard gauge.

The Great Western Railway was the last to make the change. It had been built with the broad gauge of seven feet. On some parts of its system a third rail was laid, and these stretches of track would take both broad-gauge and standard-gauge carriages. It was not till 1892 that the Great Western Railway abandoned the broad gauge and converted the whole of its track to standard gauge. This was a tremendous undertaking. New engines and carriages and trucks had to be built ready for the change, which had to be made without interrupting the traffic. When the appointed day came many thousands of men (many of them lent by other companies) were stationed along the line. On each section, when the last broad-gauge train had passed, the men

set to work and shifted one of the rails, and in a few hours the line was ready for the running of standard-gauge trains. As the broad-gauge trains completed their last journeys they were run off into sidings.

Big Companies. For many years there were more than a hundred railway companies in Great Britain. About ten of them were great companies which owned long lines; the other lines were quite short. In 1923 most of these were combined to form the four companies—Great Western, London and North-Eastern, London Midland and Scottish, and Southern—which existed until recently. In 1948 all the lines were taken over by the Government to be worked as a single system known as British Railways. The districts formerly served by the four companies were known henceforth as Regions.

Goods and Passengers. The earliest railways were built to carry goods. Before long it was found that travelling was safer and quicker by railway than by road, and passenger trains became as important as goods trains. Yet even to-day three of the four Regions earn more money by carrying goods than passengers; it is only the Southern Region that depends mainly on passenger traffic. The Southern Region does not run to any of the great factory towns or the coal mines of the north and west but serves the seaside towns of the south coast. A large part of the Southern Region system is now electric.

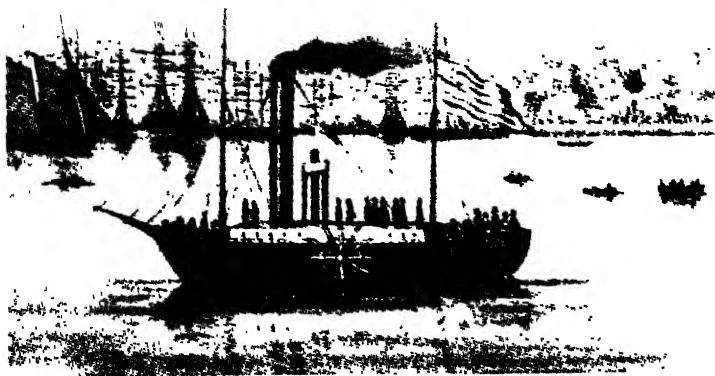
Railways in Other Countries. Steam railways were first built in Great Britain, but they were soon copied in other countries. The builders of railways in these countries were able to avoid the mistakes which had been made by the early British railway engineers. From the beginning their lines could be planned as a complete system, whereas in Great Britain many short lines had been constructed, and these had had to be joined together afterwards. In Great Britain there were at first several different gauges, but in most other countries a single gauge was adopted from the beginning. (But three or four different gauges were

used in Australia, and two in India.) In Great Britain the railway companies had to buy the land they needed, often at very high prices; in some other countries land was plentiful and cheap. For this reason nearly all foreign lines cost much less to build than British railways. All important British lines have double tracks, while the very long lines in large but thinly peopled countries had at first single tracks, which were doubled only when population increased enough to make it necessary.

There is a network of railways in all important countries of Europe. There are not so many in Asia, though the Trans-Siberian railway extends from European Russia across Siberia to the Pacific. China has some lines, which were built by Europeans. In India some railways are of five feet six inches gauge and others are of metre gauge (about thirty-nine inches); there are more than twenty thousand miles of each system—not too much for a population of nearly four hundred millions! South African railways, which are built to a gauge of three feet six inches, have been very successful. There were no great engineering difficulties to overcome in laying them down, and hundreds of miles of track pass over level country. North American railways are built to the same gauge as those of Great Britain. There are several transcontinental lines in the United States and three in Canada—the Canadian Pacific, the Canadian National, and the Grand Trunk. These lines were laid easily in the prairie regions; the greatest difficulty was to find passes by which to cross the Rocky Mountains.

Steamships. Steamships were built many years before the first steam railway was opened. The *Charlotte Dundas* worked on the Forth and Clyde Canal in 1802, the *Clermont* on the Hudson River in North America in 1807, and the *Comet* on the Clyde in 1812. The *Savannah* crossed the Atlantic in 1819, and the *Enterprise* made a voyage to India in 1825, the year in which the Stockton and Darlington Railway was opened. These early steamships were really sailing vessels to which paddle-wheels which could be turned by an engine were attached. When the wind was favourable, sails were spread; when it died away

or blew in the wrong direction, the paddle-wheels were used. Before the middle of the century many ships went entirely by steam, and with screw propellers instead of paddle-wheels.



A PADDLE-WHEEL STEAMSHIP—THE "CLERMONT"

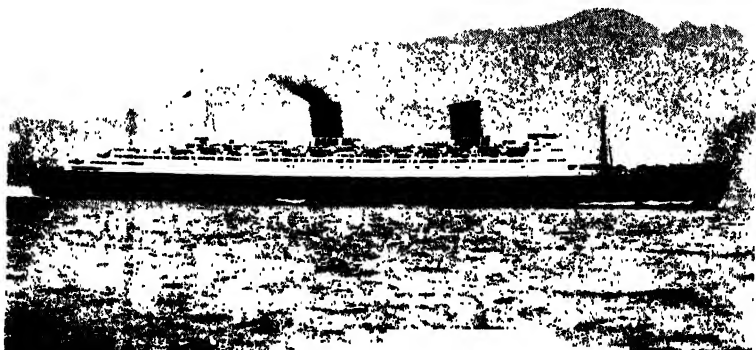
The Suez Canal. The Suez Canal was opened in 1869, and the voyage to India was much shorter through the canal than by way of the Cape of Good Hope. But only steamships could use the canal.

The Plimsoll Line. In time past ships were sometimes sent on voyages in an unseaworthy condition. They might be overloaded, and they were often in such a bad state that they were certain to sink if a storm should arise. Seamen lost their lives, but ship-owners lost nothing, since they always insured their vessels.

Samuel Plimsoll, a member of Parliament, spoke in the House of Commons very strongly about this, and a law was passed ordering that ships should not put to sea unless they were seaworthy. A line was to be painted on the hull of every cargo ship, and the

vessel might not be loaded so heavily as to submerge the load-line, which came to be known as the Plimsoll line.

Iron and Steel Ships. Ships built of iron plates replaced wooden ships by the middle of the nineteenth century, and, later on, steel



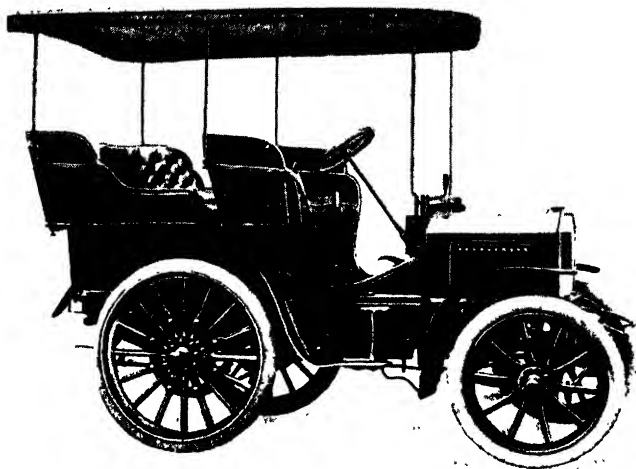
THE "QUEEN ELIZABETH"

Cunard White Star

plates came into use. Steel was so much stronger than iron that very thin plates could be used, and steel ships were so light that when they were not loaded they floated high out of the water. They could carry larger cargoes without being overloaded, and engines which used less coal were invented. For these reasons the cost of sending goods by sea was much less than formerly.

Ships in the Twentieth Century. Other changes were made in the twentieth century. Turbine engines were used, and many ships used oil fuel instead of coal. Some vessels were driven by motors instead of by steam-engines. So many new inventions were made that ships became out of date a few years after they were built. British shipowners wanted their fleets to contain the latest and fastest ships afloat, and they often sold their older

vessels to foreign countries and replaced them with new and up-to-date ships. It thus happened that not only was the British merchant navy the largest in the world but it contained the fastest and most modern vessels.



AN EARLY MOTOR-CAR

Motors. Until nearly the end of the nineteenth century a motor-car might not be driven along a public road in Great Britain at a speed greater than three miles an hour and with a man carrying a red flag in front to warn people of its approach. It was not until 1896 that cars could be used without the flag-man, and even then they were not allowed to go faster than twelve miles an hour. (To celebrate this change in the law it was arranged that a number of cars should run from London to Brighton; only a few of them completed the run, many breaking down by the way.)

In course of time the speed limit was raised to twenty miles an hour, and later on it was removed altogether. But the number of accidents on the roads was very great. Many people were

killed and more were injured, sometimes because they were careless, at other times because car drivers were careless. At length it was decided that there should be a speed limit of thirty miles an hour in towns and large villages but that cars might travel at a higher speed on country roads, where there were few people. Notices with the figure 30 were placed on all roads leading into towns, as warnings to motorists that they should not go too fast. But accidents still occur; hundreds of people are killed and thousands are injured on the roads every month. The problem of making the roads safe has not yet been solved.

In the twentieth century the motor is doing much of the work that in the nineteenth was done by the steam-engine. People travel in motor-cars, and goods are sent by motor lorry, and a system of good roads has been made all over the country. One reason why motor vehicles are preferred to railways, for goods and for passengers, is that they go from door to door; there is less loading and unloading of goods than if they are sent by railway. Motor vessels are used at sea, and motors of very great power are used in the air. There seems no doubt that in the future the air will be used for fast travel, though heavy goods will still be sent by railway or steamship.

The Post Office. A postal system existed in England in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, but the cost was high, and few letters were sent by post. If a member of a poor family went to live in another town he was cut off from his family; even if he could write, which was not always the case, there was no cheap way of sending a letter to his friends, and very often they never heard of him again.

For ordinary people the cost of postage was higher than it need have been, because some men were allowed to send letters for nothing by franking them. Noblemen, members of Parliament, and other important people signed their names on their letters and paid no postage, and they did this for their friends and their servants as well as for themselves.

Until 1840 the cost of sending a letter varied with the distance it was to be sent. Rowland Hill proposed that a charge of one

penny should be made for all letters in the country; it would cost the post office more than a penny to take a letter from London to Edinburgh but less than a penny if the letter had to go only a short distance. Many more letters would be sent if the postage was cheap, and the post office could send a large bag of letters as easily as a small bag. Postage stamps were invented, and the new system soon became a great success. Not only private letters but business letters were sent in great numbers. Short messages could be written on postcards and posted for a halfpenny. The mail bags were carried by train. In course of time the post office carried parcels as well as letters.

The postal system which was begun in Great Britain was copied by other countries, and it soon became possible to send letters from one country to another.

The telegraph system was taken over by the post office in 1870, and urgent messages could be sent by telegraph for sixpence. Telephones were introduced in Great Britain in the latter part of the nineteenth century. For many years they were worked by the National Telephone Company, but in 1912 they were taken over by the Government and became part of the post office system.

The penny post for letters continued until the war of 1914-18. During that war the postage on letters was raised to three-halfpence and then to twopence. After the war it was reduced to three-halfpence, but early in the war of 1939-45 it was raised to twopence-halfpenny, and in 1957 to threepence. Other postal charges also have been increased.

In past years the post office made large profits. Expenses are now much higher than formerly, so that now no profit is made; the increased postage rates just mentioned are required in order that heavy losses may be avoided.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Why was travelling difficult before the eighteenth century? How were (a) people, and (b) goods carried?
2. Write a short life of Blind Jack of Knaresborough.

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3. Who was the most successful of the road-makers, and how were his roads made?

4. Describe the work of James Brindley.

5. In what way was the Great Western Railway different from other railways? How did this difference disappear?

6. Why are steel ships better than iron ships?

7. Write three or four lines about each of the following: (*a*) the Surrey Iron Railway, (*b*) turnpikes, (*c*) locks, (*d*) the Rocket, (*e*) paddle-wheels, (*f*) the Suez Canal.

CHAPTER 9

SLAVERY

Slavery in England. In very early times there were slaves, though not many of them, in England. Men who owed money which they could not pay were sometimes sold as slaves and so were their wives and children, and this might happen to those who were guilty of serious crimes. Not very long after the Norman Conquest slavery died out in England, and the few remaining slaves became serfs.

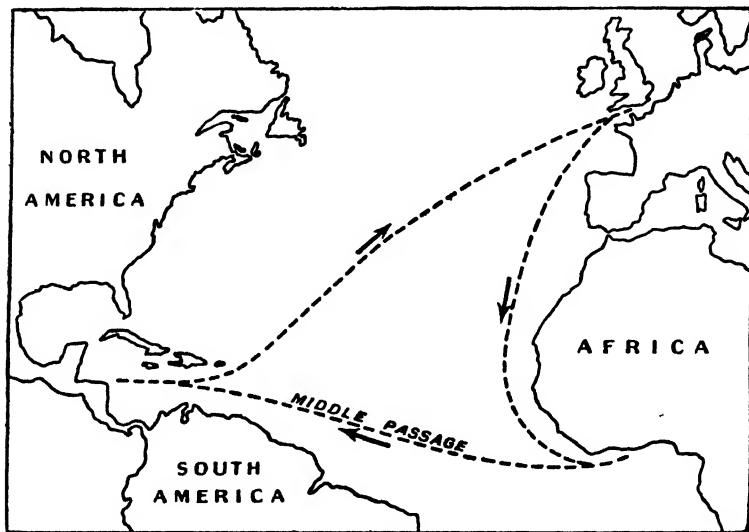
Serfdom in England. Serfs were not slaves, though they were not entirely free. They had to work for their lord, and they were not allowed to leave the village in which they lived. By the close of the Middle Ages serfdom, too, was dying out. There were very few serfs in the Tudor Period, and none at all in the Stuart Period. All persons in England were free.

Slavery in the Colonies. Not all men were free in the colonies. In Spanish and Portuguese colonies in the New World much of the hard work was done by negro slaves who had been taken to America from Africa. Sir John Hawkins, in the reign of Elizabeth, was the first Englishman to carry slaves across the Atlantic to Spanish colonies, and when English colonies were founded in North America and the West Indies slaves were employed in them. They were to be found in French and Dutch colonies also.

The Slave Trade. In the eighteenth century the slave trade was very important, and more than half of it was carried on in English ships. In one year as many as 50,000 slaves would be carried across the Atlantic in English ships, of which about two hundred were engaged in the trade.

The usual slave voyage was triangular. The slave ship sailed

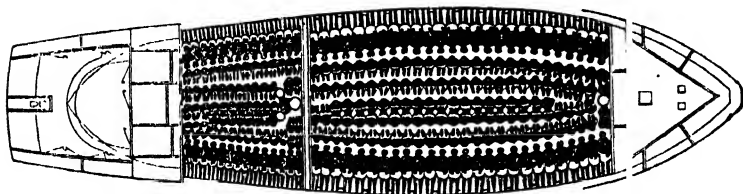
from an English port (London or Bristol or Liverpool), carrying cotton goods, beads, mirrors, knives, and other articles, to West Africa. These were given to the slave dealers in exchange for a cargo of negroes. The slaves were packed on board ship as



SLAVE VOYAGE

closely as possible, sometimes between decks which were only four feet apart. During the voyage across the Atlantic they were chained in their places the whole time and were not allowed to move about the ship. If the ship was delayed by contrary winds food and water might run short and fever might break out. It was expected that some of the slaves would die on the voyage, and if a storm arose and it became necessary to lighten ship some of the negroes might be thrown overboard, like any other cargo. When the ship reached the other side of the ocean the slaves were landed and sold to any planters who wished to buy them; men who were strong and young fetched higher prices than those that were older and weaker. The ship was then loaded with sugar,

bales of cotton, tobacco, and other things grown in the colonies, and it returned to England. Merchants of Liverpool and Bristol grew very rich in this trade. No wonder that an actor who was



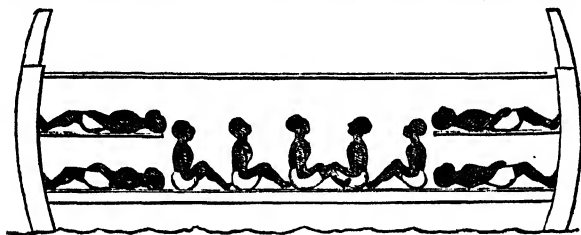
Scale of Feet

Weaver Smith

A SLAVE SHIP—PLAN

hissed in a theatre at Liverpool said to his audience, "The stones of your houses are cemented with the blood of negro slaves."

The slave trade seems to us to have been shockingly wicked. Yet some of the captains of slave ships were religious men. One



Water Line

Weaver Smith

A SLAVE SHIP—SECTION

of them, John Newton, who afterwards became a clergyman, was the author of the hymns which begin, "How sweet the name of Jesus sounds," and "Glorious things of thee are spoken."

The Treatment of Slaves. On some plantations slaves were well treated. They were not paid any money for their work, but they had huts to live in, they were fed and clothed, and a doctor attended them when they were ill. Too often, the slaveowners

were selfish and cruel, and slaves were whipped if they did not work hard enough. If a slave ran away and was caught he was certain to be punished severely. If a slaveowner wished to sell any of his slaves he could do so; negro children might be sold away from their parents, whom they would never see again.



SLAVES ON A PLANTATION

Weaver Smith

Abolition of the Slave Trade. Many people in England did not know how cruel the slave trade was, and when they learned about it they thought it ought to be stopped. In 1787 a society was formed in London to try to bring the slave trade to an end. Its leaders were William Wilberforce, Zachary Macaulay (the father of Lord Macaulay, the historian), and Thomas Clarkson. They lived at Clapham, and were known as the Clapham sect. Wilberforce became member of Parliament for the county of Yorkshire, and he frequently made speeches in the House of Commons about the evils of the slave trade and of slavery itself. The merchants of Liverpool and Bristol and the planters in the

West Indies became very much alarmed, and they held meetings and had books and papers written in which the life of the slaves was described. According to them, the voyage across the Atlantic was comfortable and happy, and life on the plantations was pleasant and joyous. People were not likely to believe these accounts; yet it was not till 1807 that an Act of Parliament was passed abolishing the slave trade. It did not come to an end at once. Slave ships still sailed, but ships of war were on the watch for them, and if they were caught the slaves were set free. The trade was so profitable that if only one ship out of three escaped capture it was still worth while. After 1811 the captain of a slave ship might be transported, and not long afterwards another law was passed by which he might be hanged. It was now too risky to carry on the trade, and it died away.

Other countries besides Great Britain wished to bring the slave trade to an end. Denmark did so in 1802. In 1815, at the Congress of Vienna, France, Spain, Portugal, and Holland agreed to abolish the slave trade, though some years passed before they all did so.

Homes for Freed Slaves. In 1788 a settlement called Freetown, which became the capital of the colony of Sierra Leone, in West Africa, was founded as a place in which slaves who had been set free could live. After 1807, whenever a British warship captured a slave ship the negroes were taken to Sierra Leone.

Liberia was a settlement in West Africa begun by Americans for slaves who had been set free by their ships. It was not an American colony but an independent republic. It has not been very successful; the negroes have shown themselves unable to establish good government in their little state, and more than once the United States has had to help them.

The Corsairs. Slavery of another kind existed in the Mediterranean. For two or three centuries the towns on the north coast of Africa, such as Algiers, Tunis, and Sallee, were held by Moham-medan pirates called Corsairs. (Readers of *Robinson Crusoe* will remember that Crusoe as a young man was captured by Sallee

pirates and held by them as a slave until he escaped.) The Corsairs had many galleys rowed by slaves; they attacked Christian ships in the Mediterranean, and when they captured them all on board, captain, crew, and passengers, became their slaves to work on land or to row in the galleys. If these people were rich or had rich friends they might be ransomed; if not, they remained slaves for the rest of their lives. In 1816 a British fleet under Lord Exmouth bombarded Algiers and set free a very large number of Christian slaves. From that time the power of the Corsairs was broken.

Abolition of Slavery in the British Empire. Wilberforce and his friends did not think their work was finished when the slave trade was abolished. They would not be satisfied until slavery itself was brought to an end. But they were growing old, and a younger man, Sir Thomas Buxton, carried on the work in Parliament and in the country. Missionaries who visited the West Indies and South Africa told tales of the cruel treatment of the slaves. At length, in 1833, an act to abolish slavery everywhere in the British Empire was passed by Parliament. Wilberforce, who died in 1833, lived just long enough to hear that the Act had been passed.

The Act declared that all slaves in the British Empire were to be set free. Children under six years of age were to be freed at once. Other slaves were to work as apprentices for their former masters for seven years, but this system did not work well and was ended in 1838. But the slaves had belonged to their masters, and it did not seem fair to the slaveowners to release the slaves without paying for them. Parliament granted the sum of twenty million pounds to be paid to the slaveowners for the loss of their slaves.

This was not the end of the story. After 1833 every person, black or white, in the British Empire was free. Yet many colonies have been added to the British Empire since 1833, and slavery existed in some of them when they were taken over. It could not be allowed to continue; yet it was not always easy to do away with it at once. To free slaves without giving them any way of

earning their living might mean that they would starve. In some of these colonies slaves were declared to be free but were told they could remain to work for their masters if they wished;



Weaver Smith

A RUNAWAY SLAVE

on the other hand, if they wanted to leave they could do so. In some parts of West Africa slaves were used as porters. Long processions of negroes carrying bales of goods on their heads made their way through jungle and forest, and there was no other way

by which goods could be moved. The only way to do away with such slavery was to make a road or build a railway; then slaves would not be needed.

Slavery in the United States. Slavery lasted longer in the United States than in the British Empire. The American Government abolished the slave trade in 1808, a year after it had been ended by Great Britain. After 1808 no more negroes could be brought from Africa to America, and the only new slaves were those born of slave parents in the United States. Slavery existed in the southern states, but not in those farther north. Many of the American people wanted the slaves to be set free, but the slave-owners did not wish this to be done. In 1861 a civil war between north and south broke out. Slavery was not the only cause of the war, but the southern states were defeated, and slavery was abolished.

The Last Traces of Slavery. Even in the twentieth century it has been found that slavery still exists in some countries, one of them being Abyssinia. The League of Nations tried to end it wherever it existed, and it is certain that the United Nations will not be contented until no trace of slavery remains in any part of the world.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Describe a slave voyage in the eighteenth century.
2. Describe the treatment of negro slaves by (a) good masters, and (b) bad masters.
3. What was ordered by the Act of Parliament which abolished slavery in the British Empire?
4. Write a few lines about each of the following: (a) Sir John Hawkins, (b) William Wilberforce, (c) Lord Exmouth, (d) John Newton.
5. Write four or five lines about each of the following: (a) the Clapham sect, (b) Freetown, (c) the Corsairs, (d) Liberia.

CHAPTER 10

CHILDREN IN THE FACTORIES

Child Slavery. At the end of the eighteenth century, when people were trying to bring the slave trade to an end, another kind of slavery existed in Great Britain. It was not called slavery, for by the law of this country everybody was free. Yet the children who worked at the machines for spinning cotton in the factories were as truly slaves as were the negroes who grew the cotton in the plantations in America, and there was in England a slave trade as real as that on the Atlantic. Bristol and Liverpool merchants gained wealth from the trade in black slaves; factory owners in Manchester and other northern towns grew rich on the labour of white slaves.

When machines were invented and factories were built to hold them, it was found that they could be worked by children and women as well as by men. Children were not paid so much as men and women, so that it was cheaper to employ them, and factory owners soon found a way of using them without paying them at all.

Workhouse Children. The workhouses of London and other large towns contained many children who had no parents; they were there because they had nowhere else to go. The ratepayers of the parish in which they lived paid a poor rate, and the money collected in this way was used to keep these pauper children alive. They were not fed well, they were badly clothed, they were not sent to school, and no doubt they were sometimes beaten—but they had to be kept alive somehow. If a factory owner from the north of England visited the workhouse and offered to take a number of the children the master of the workhouse was willing to let them go, and so were the ratepayers, for, if there were fewer

children to keep, the poor rate would be lower. The factory owner would offer to make the children—girls as well as boys—his apprentices. The law did not allow them to be taken unless



Weaver Smith

OLIVER TWIST ASKING FOR MORE

they were willing to go, and they were told what a happy life they would lead in the factory, how nice it would be to make the machines work, and what good food they would have. As they were certainly not happy in the workhouse they would be eager to

leave it. They would be taken before a magistrate who would ask them if they would like to go to the factory, and they would reply with a shout of "Yes, sir."

The people in charge of the workhouses found that factory owners were ready to take as many children as they could get, and they would not let them go for nothing. They asked to be paid, and they received five or ten pounds or even more for each child who was allowed to go. The trade in child slaves was in full swing. Even then, child slaves were much cheaper than the negroes who were sold in America.

Children in Factories. When the children reached the factory and were put to work they soon found that their life was not so happy and easy as they had been told it would be. They had to work for as many as twelve hours per day, and sometimes longer. They even worked at times from six o'clock in the morning to ten o'clock at night, day after day. Even on Sunday they did not rest, for on that day they had to clean the machinery. They could not stop working to take their meals, but ate their food while they were at work. If they were slow, the foreman or overseer beat them with a cane or strap or whip. If they fell asleep at their work they were taken outside and drenched with water; then, wet through and shivering with cold, they were driven back to work. There was no chance of escape, for they never left the factory, and if a child managed to run away he did not know where to go. When he was caught, as he soon would be, a weight might be chained to his leg so that he should not run away again. Sometimes a child worker died. There was nobody to find out whether he had died from ill treatment, and his body was quietly buried in the factory grounds. There can be no doubt that these child workers in factories were slaves.

It is right to state that not all factory owners were cruel to the children who worked for them. Some of them were kindly men who took an interest in the children and treated them properly. One of the best masters was Robert Owen, who had a factory at New Lanark, in Scotland. The children who worked for Owen were treated kindly; they were well fed and properly clothed;

their hours of work were not too long; and they were taught to read and write.

Early Factory Acts. Most people in this country knew nothing of the overwork and cruel treatment of the child slaves in the cotton factories. Even when they learned what was going on they did not think it wrong that young children should work for their living, and they thought it right that they should be punished if they were idle. But they did think it wrong that children should be overworked and that they should be punished cruelly. A law was passed in 1802 ordering that apprentices should not work more than twelve hours per day and not at night, that they should have new clothes every year, that they should be taken to church at least once a month, and that the inside of the factory should be lime-washed once in seven years. The passing of this law shows what life and work in the factories were like before 1802; children worked more than twelve hours per day, they worked during part of the night, they were clothed in rags, they never went to church, and they worked in buildings that were very dirty.

There was no way of enforcing this law, for though people were appointed to visit the factory they went only once or twice a year, and nobody could tell whether the law was being kept or broken at other times. Yet the Act of 1802 must have made some difference, for after this time some masters employed children who were not apprentices and who lived at home with their parents. The law of 1802 applied only to apprentices and not to other children, who could still be made to work longer than twelve hours per day. These children were paid wages—perhaps a shilling or one and sixpence or two shillings per week, and as the master had not to feed and clothe them he was no worse off than if he still employed apprentices.

A law passed in 1819 applied to all children, whether apprentices or not. It stated that no child under nine years of age should work in a cotton factory, and that those over nine years old should not work more than twelve hours per day and not at night. Like the Act of 1802, this law could not be enforced properly.

Effective Factory Acts. It was not till 1833, the year in which the black slaves were freed, that an effective Factory Act was passed. Children were not to work more than eight hours per day, and they were to attend school for two hours every day. It was not easy to enforce the rule about attending school, for in many places there was no school, but the Act showed that Parliament wanted to improve the life of child factory workers. There was some chance of the eight-hour rule being enforced, as four factory inspectors were appointed. They might enter a factory at any time and ask any questions they wished, and if they found that the factory owner was breaking the law he might be ordered to pay a fine.

After this, more and more attention was paid to factory workers. Other laws were passed, by which the hours of children's work were made still shorter and more time was spent in school; the age for entering the factory was raised; the hours of women's work were reduced; time was to be allowed for meals, which were not to be taken in the room where work was carried on; and there were to be guards round dangerous machines in order to prevent accidents. But it was not till 1918 that child labour in the factories was brought to an end.

Since that time it has been ordered that children shall attend school until they are fifteen years old. In their spare time they should be free to play or to enjoy themselves in other ways. And before many years have passed no child will be able to begin work in a factory until he is sixteen years of age, since he will remain at school until that time.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. State how factory owners obtained child apprentices.
2. How were child apprentices treated in the early factories?
3. Why is it true to say that the child workers in the early factories were really slaves?
4. What was ordered by the Factory Act of 1833?

CHAPTER II

TRADE UNIONS

The Gilds in the Middle Ages. Most of the working men in Great Britain in the twentieth century belong to trade unions. These unions are not very old. Some of them have existed for forty or fifty years and others rather longer, but only two, the London Society of Compositors, founded in 1848, and the Amalgamated Society of Engineers (now the Amalgamated Engineering Union), founded in 1851, are over a hundred years old. Yet the idea of workmen forming unions, or societies, is not new. Such societies existed in the Middle Ages; they were called gilds. (When this word is used for a society of any kind to-day it is spelt "guild," but it is better to use the spelling "gild" for a society of the Middle Ages.)

There were several kinds of gild. A society of all the people in a town who worked in a craft, or trade, was a craft gild, and nobody might work at a trade unless he was a member of its gild. A craft gild would seem to be like a trade union; yet it was different from a trade union of to-day in that masters as well as workmen belonged to it. In fact, the masters were themselves workmen who worked by the side of the men they employed. As a rule, the workers did not ask the gild to try to get higher wages for them, because they hoped to become masters in a few years, and then they would be paying wages instead of receiving them. But in one way the craft gilds were like trade unions. At the present time workmen often refuse to work with a man who is not a member of their union. This is called the principle of the closed shop. A medieval gild was a closed shop, for, as stated above, nobody might work at the craft who did not belong to it.

The gilds continued until the Tudor Period, when they fell upon hard times. Under Edward VI much of their wealth was taken from them, and most of them came to an end.

The Statute of Artificers. In the reign of Elizabeth the Statute of Artificers (or workmen) was passed, by which the wages of

workmen were fixed by the magistrates of each town and county. The master might not pay less, and the workman might not ask for more, than was ordered. This law worked well. The magistrates did their work as fairly as they could. The wages they ordered for various trades seem to have been very low, but it must be remembered that money was worth much more then than now, and the workmen were satisfied. This system of ordering wages lasted till the eighteenth century, when it died away.

Early Trade Unions. At the time of the Industrial Revolution there was no way of getting wages settled fairly. There were no guilds, and the magistrates no longer ordered what should be paid. Factory owners paid as little as they could, and workers in the factories were very badly off. In some towns they formed trade unions, hoping that a union would be able to force an employer to pay more. These unions were small and had little power, and they had little success. When the French Revolution was going on it was feared that these unions might try to start in England a revolution like that of France, and in 1799 a law was passed by which workmen were forbidden to form trade unions.

Trade Unions Illegal. For the next twenty-five years men might be, and often were, sent to prison for joining a trade union. Yet the unions did not die out altogether. Men would meet in secret, often in the back rooms of public houses, and some of them would stand on guard outside, ready to give warning if officers were coming to arrest them. Nobody was admitted to such a meeting unless he was well known or unless he could give a secret password at the door.

Trade Unions partly Legal. In 1824 the law was changed. Men were now allowed to form trade unions which might bargain with employers about wages and hours of work, but not for any other purpose. During the next few years many small unions were formed. The workpeople would pay money to their union until a few hundred pounds had been collected. The union would ask the employers to pay higher wages; as a rule, they would refuse;

the workers would come out on strike and would remain out until the money of the union was spent. They would go back to work, having gained nothing, and the union would come to an end. Such unions were of very little use to the working classes.

The Tolpuddle Martyrs. In 1834 six labourers at Tolpuddle, in Dorset, agreed to ask the farmers for whom they worked to raise their wages from seven shillings to ten shillings per week. This was quite legal, since under the Act of 1824 men might unite in asking for higher wages. But these men did more; they took an oath to stand by one another, and under another law it was illegal to take such an oath. Very likely they did not know this, for they were simple, honest men, good workmen, who did not wish to break the law. They were tried for taking the oath, and were sentenced to be transported to Australia for seven years. Many people were shocked at this cruel sentence, and after two or three years they were pardoned. Even then, news of the pardon was not sent at once to Australia, and the men were released only after one of them happened to read of it in an English newspaper which had reached Australia.

“Friendly” Unions. Some larger unions were formed in course of time. These unions paid their members when they were ill or out of work, and some of them paid pensions to aged members who could no longer work. They could make these payments only so long as they had enough money, and they did not often call their members out on strike, since if they had to give strike pay to their members their funds would soon be spent. But they had trouble of another kind. These payments for sickness and unemployment were not allowed by the Act of 1824, and they had to appoint one of their members as treasurer to collect and hold the money. If, as sometimes happened, the treasurer were dishonest and ran away with the money they could do nothing about it.

Trade Unions fully Legal. In 1871 another Trade Union Act was passed, by which all the purposes of a trade union were made

legal. But if a strike occurred the men were not allowed to picket the factory. If the employer could find other workmen to replace those on strike, the strike would fail. It was usual for the men who were striking to wait outside the factory; if others came for employment the strikers would try to persuade them not to go in. This was made illegal in 1871, but four years later picketing became legal if it was peaceful; the strikers might persuade the newcomers not to go in but might not prevent them by force.

Trade Unions of Unskilled Men. So far, trade unions had been formed only in skilled trades, for which the men had been trained. It was not so easy to form unions of unskilled workers. Their wages were so low that they could not afford regular payments to a trade union, and if they went on strike they could be easily replaced, since their work did not require training.

In 1889 the dock labourers in London formed a union, and in August of that year they struck work for several weeks. They had been receiving fourpence an hour, and they often had to wait for hours, while ships were coming up the Thames, before beginning work, so that they rarely obtained wages for a full week's work. They now asked for sixpence an hour—"the Dockers' Tanner." Their union had very little money with which to support them during the strike, but many people gave money to help them, and after five weeks they gained what they asked for.

Trade Unions of Agricultural Labourers. In 1872 Joseph Arch, a Norfolk labourer, formed a union of agricultural labourers, who were the worst paid people in the country. Squires and farmers were very much against this union, and labourers who joined it were discharged from their work and turned out of their cottages. The union failed, but in the twentieth century another more successful union of agricultural labourers was formed. King George V allowed the men on his estate at Sandringham, in Norfolk, to join the union, and when the King allowed his labourers to join it other employers felt bound to do the same.

Larger Trade Unions. The trade unions of the nineteenth

century were generally small, with a few hundreds or a few thousands of members. In a single trade there would be different unions in different parts of the country. In the twentieth century these local unions have joined together to form nation-wide unions, and there is now one big union for miners, one union for transport workers, and so on. For railway workers there are three large unions for different classes of railwaymen, but each of these unions is nation-wide. These big unions, unlike the smaller unions of a century ago, do not provide for their members in sickness and unemployment. They expect the Government to do this by means of National Insurance.

All working men (and their wives) have votes, and a Labour party has been formed with the support of the trade unions. From 1945 to 1951 the Labour party had a majority in the House of Commons, and the Labour Government aimed at doing for the working classes many of the things that were formerly done by trade unions.

Trade Unionism of the Present Day. One of the things learned by workmen through being members of trade unions is the importance of sticking together. Very few workmen would take the place of men who are on strike. Men who do this are known as blacklegs, and others will not work with them.

The large unions of the present day very rarely call their members out on strike. One reason for this is that strikes cost a union a great deal of money. Strikers receive strike pay from their union, and if the strike should last several weeks or months the funds of the union might all be spent. A more important reason for a union's dislike of strikes is that it can generally gain what it wants by bargaining with employers and without calling a strike. Yet strikes occur. Most of them are sudden and are not called by the union; the men receive no strike pay, and the union often asks them to return to work.

At the present time men no longer have to claim the right to join a trade union. The question is different—whether a man has a right not to belong to a union. Some workmen still dislike trade unions and refuse to join, but the members of the unions say that

it is unfair that non-members should enjoy the benefits, such as higher wages and shorter hours, gained by a trade union if they refuse to join it. It sometimes happens that a large number of men in a factory will strike because a man who is not a member of their union is employed there, and they will not return to work until he is dismissed. To avoid such strikes some employers now insist that all men who work for them shall belong to a trade union.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. In what ways are guilds and trade unions (*a*) alike, and (*b*) unlike?
2. What was ordered by the Statute of Artificers, 1563?
3. Why were trade unions forbidden in 1799?
4. Who were the Tolpuddle Martyrs? Why were they transported to Australia?
5. Why do large trade unions rarely call their members out on strike?
6. Write four or five lines about each of the following: (*a*) the dock strike of 1889, (*b*) Joseph Arch's union, (*c*) picketing, (*d*) blacklegs.

CHAPTER 12

THE TREATMENT OF THE POOR

The Poor in the Middle Ages. Jesus Christ once said to his disciples, "Ye have the poor with you always." From early times there were in England people so poor that they might have starved to death if food had not been given to them. Such people could always obtain help in the Middle Ages. At the gates of monasteries bread and ale were given to all who came to ask for them, and in many great houses, the castles and palaces of lords and bishops, all comers were given a meal.

The Poor in the Tudor Period. When the monasteries were destroyed by Henry VIII nothing was done for the people who had been fed at the gates of abbeys and priories every day. At this time there were large numbers of beggars who wandered about the country, men without work and without homes. In the Tudor period it was thought that beggars were lazy people who would not work, and a law was passed that persons (not men only, but women also) who were found begging were to be whipped twice on their bare backs, "until their backs be bloody." An even more cruel law was passed by which beggars were to be branded with a hot iron and kept to work as slaves, but this law was soon repealed.

The Poor Law of 1601. Whipping did not end the trouble. Men were still without work and were forced to beg or steal if they were not to starve. In 1601, near the end of the reign of Queen Elizabeth, a great Poor Law was passed, in which it was ordered that every parish should look after its poor people. Those who were too old or too ill to work were to be kept; poor children who had lost their parents were to be apprenticed to a trade so that when they grew up they could earn their own living; strong men

and women were to be given work to do. The cost of keeping the poor was to be met by a poor rate which the people of the parish had to pay.

Workhouses. People wished the poor rate to be as low as possible, and in 1722 the Workhouse Act was passed. Everybody who needed help from the poor funds had to go and live in a workhouse, and any who would not do this were refused all help. Life in the workhouse was very hard; there was just enough food to keep people alive, and no more, and the food was the cheapest and poorest that could be obtained.

The Speenhamland System. During the eighteenth century the Industrial Revolution began; wages in town and country were very low, and large numbers of people were very poor. They could obtain poor relief only by going to live in the workhouse, and, if they did that, they lost their homes and their employment. An Act passed in 1782, known as Gilbert's Act, stated that money from the poor fund might be given to workmen whose wages were so low that they could not keep themselves and their families, and they were not forced to live in the workhouse.

The worst-paid workers were the farm labourers, and in 1795 a meeting of the magistrates of Berkshire was held at the Pelican Inn, Speenhamland, to help them. The magistrates decided that every labourer should receive the sum of three shillings each week for himself and one shilling and sixpence per week for each of his children, and if the price of bread was raised these sums were to be increased. The payment was what would be called to-day a family allowance.

This system soon spread to many other parts of the country. In one way it was good; it prevented the poor from starving to death during the French wars. In every other way it was bad; it made the labourer a pauper by giving him money he had not earned, and it induced young labourers to marry and have very large families because of the money they would receive for their children. Farmers would not pay higher wages to their men (though they could afford to do so) because the men were receiving

these weekly doles. The poor rate was very high, and some of the people who collected it and paid money to the labourers were dishonest; they did not always keep proper account books, and they were able to enrich themselves.

The New Poor Law. The Speenhamland system went on for nearly forty years, until the passing of the new Poor Law in 1834. The weekly payments to the poor were then abolished, and the labourers suffered severely, for their wages did not rise. Those who wanted help could obtain it only by giving up their homes and work and going into the workhouse, and most of them would rather starve than do this. Not only was life in the workhouse very hard, but it was thought to be a great disgrace to be a pauper. As stated in another chapter, many farm labourers left the countryside to live in towns, where they could earn higher wages.

The Poor in the Twentieth Century. It was not until the early years of the twentieth century that a new inquiry was made into the proper treatment of the poor. It was found that people were poor for various reasons, and it was proposed that different classes of poor people should be treated in different ways. The man who was a pauper because he was a drunkard and had lost his employment should be cured of his liking for strong drink; those who had become insane so that they could not keep themselves by working should be cared for in mental hospitals; men without work should be given work or should receive payment until they could find work; children without parents should be placed in homes; people too old to work should receive pensions.

Some, though not all, of these ideas have been carried out. Children are no longer kept in workhouses and are provided with homes. Old age pensions are given to those who can work no longer. There is a system of national insurance by which men who are out of work or who fall ill are paid money each week in order to keep themselves and their families. If a father should die his family does not go to the workhouse, as his widow receives a pension for herself and her children.

It follows that not many people are left in the workhouses—and these places are not now called workhouses. The time is perhaps not far distant when the poor law will be a thing of the past, and when every person in the country, whether young or old, ill or well, in work or out of work, will have the means of living in a fair degree of comfort without the assistance of the poor law.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. How were the poor helped in the Middle Ages?
2. Mention three ways of dealing with the poor in the Tudor Period.
3. What was ordered by the Poor Law of 1601?
4. What was the Speenhamland system? Why was it bad, and how was it ended?
5. How are the poor treated in the twentieth century?

CHAPTER 13

EDUCATION

Charity Schools and Dame Schools. Though many of the poorer people in the eighteenth century could not read and write, this was not true of everybody. In some towns and villages children were taught in Charity Schools. There were also many Dame Schools, kept by old men or women who received a few pence each week for every child in the school. The children in these schools were crowded in a room in a cottage, and they learned very little. Anybody might open a Dame School. The teachers were not learned men or women; it was said that all they needed was a book, a pair of spectacles, and a cane.

Parents were not forced to send their children to school, though some of them did so; others, if they themselves could read and write, sometimes taught their own children. Girls and boys did not often forget the art of reading if they had learned it, for in many cottages there was a Bible that was read every day.

Scotland. Scotland was better off for schools than England. There was a school in every parish, and the schoolmaster was, as a rule, an educated man. Most of the Scottish people had some education.

Sunday Schools. Few of the children in the slums of large towns were taught at all. In villages and small towns there was a chance for children to go to a Charity School, but in big towns there were not enough schools, and the children remained ignorant. In 1780 Robert Raikes, a shoemaker of Gloucester, started a Sunday School in which the poor children of his town could be taught. This was not quite like a Sunday School of to-day, which is carried on for the teaching of the Christian religion. The Sunday School of Robert Raikes was a school which met on Sundays in order to teach children to read; yet he taught religion also, for he intended



A CHARITY SCHOOL



A DAME SCHOOL

Weaver Smith

his pupils to read the Bible. The school met on Sundays because he and many of the children had to work on other days of the week. Before long, Sunday Schools were opened in other towns.

Grammar Schools. In many towns there were Grammar Schools for the sons of people who were well off. Latin and Greek were taught, and taught well, in these schools, but history and science and French and mathematics were not taught at all. There were very few Grammar Schools for girls, who stayed at home and learned to cook and sew.

The National and British Societies. Early in the nineteenth century two societies were formed for the building of schools. The National Society was a Church of England society which founded National Schools in many places. Children in these schools were taught to be members of the Church of England. The British Society was formed by Nonconformists (Christian people who did not belong to the Church of England), and its schools were known as British Schools. Many of the National and British Schools were built in the villages, and were small, but larger schools were opened in the big towns. A large school with some hundreds of children might have only one teacher. He would teach some of the older children, who were called monitors, and they were then placed in charge of classes of younger children and taught them what they had just learned.

Beginnings of a National System of Education. The year 1833 is important in the history of education for two reasons. By the Factory Act passed in that year children who worked in factories were to attend school for two hours every day. This was the first time that any child had been compelled to go to school. Not every child had to go to school, but the factory children were expected to do so. The other event of 1833 was that Parliament granted £20,000 for the building of schools. The money was divided between the National and British Societies; the same amount was given each year, and after a few years it was increased.

In this way more and more schools were built, until no town

was without one. But for many years children, except those who worked in factories, were not compelled to attend school, though many parents were willing to send them and the schools were nearly always full.

Elementary Education Act, 1870. By 1870, when Mr. Gladstone was Prime Minister, it was felt that every child ought to be educated. But it was useless to pass a law ordering all children to attend school until there were enough schools to hold them. In 1870 a law was passed to set up councils called School Boards in all places where there were not enough schools. It was the duty of the School Boards to have schools built so that there should be room in them for all children. More and more children attended the Board Schools, as they were called. By 1880 enough schools had been built to hold all the children, and it was ordered that all children should go to school till they were ten years old. In after years the age for leaving was raised; after 1918 children had to remain at school till they were fourteen, and the Education Act of 1944 declared that the age for leaving school should be raised to sixteen. This could not be enforced at once, as there were not enough schools and teachers, but it was hoped that, after more schools were built and more teachers trained, all children would stay at school till they reached the age of sixteen.

The education given in most of the Board Schools was free, but it was not free in the National and British Schools and some others (Wesleyan and Roman Catholic) till 1891, when nearly all school fees were abolished.

Secondary Schools. In 1902 School Boards were abolished, and town councils and county councils were given charge of the schools, which were known henceforth not as Board Schools but as Council Schools. In the same year Secondary Schools were begun. These were a good deal like the old Grammar Schools, but many other subjects besides Latin and Greek were taught in them. Fees were charged in Secondary Schools, but children in the Council Schools could win scholarships by which they attended a Secondary School without payment.

Meals in Schools. The parents of some of the children were poor and it sometimes happened that the children were not properly fed. They came to school hungry and tired and sleepy, and they learned very little. A system of giving them meals in school was begun, and now many schools have a canteen and a dining-room in which the children take their meals.

Medical Attention. Some children were not healthy, and it was arranged that doctors should visit schools and examine the pupils. It was found that the sight of many boys and girls was not perfect, and they were given spectacles; others whose teeth were not in good condition had them attended to; and in many other ways the health of school children was improved.

Education Act, 1944. The secondary education which was begun in 1902 was very good for those boys and girls who could find a place in a Secondary School. A great many children could not do so. Some of them attended Senior and Central Schools, but in 1944 it was resolved to give a secondary education to all children and to raise the school-leaving age to fifteen, and later on to sixteen. But secondary education could not be given to every boy and girl until more schools had been built and more teachers trained.

Secondary Schools are of three kinds—Grammar Schools, Modern Schools, and Technical Schools—and children between eleven and fifteen years of age go to one or other of them, while many girls and boys stay at school (especially in the Grammar Schools) until they are seventeen or eighteen. In some places multilateral (or many-sided) schools are planned instead of three separate kinds of secondary school. All three types of secondary education are to be provided in multilateral schools. In certain towns secondary schools of the three regular types that happen to be near one another are grouped together under a single head to form a “comprehensive” school.

Universities. Young men and women receive a more advanced education at universities, and when they have completed their

course of study and passed the necessary examinations they receive university degrees. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge are hundreds of years old, and the Universities of London and Durham have existed for more than a century. Several other universities have been established in large towns in England in the last forty or fifty years. Scotland has four universities—Edinburgh, Glasgow, St. Andrews, and Aberdeen.

Education at a university is expensive, and until recent times most of the students had wealthy parents. Nowadays, many scholarships are available to enable girls and boys in Secondary Schools to go to a university to complete their education, and it seems likely that in the future more and more Secondary School children will find their way to a university.

Our system of education is not yet perfect, but we have travelled a long way from the Dame Schools of the eighteenth century.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Write three or four lines about each of the following: (a) Dame Schools, (b) Secondary Schools, (c) Grammar Schools, (d) National Schools, (e) British Schools.
2. What were School Boards, and what did they do?
3. What, in addition to teaching them, is done for children in the schools of the present day?
4. What was ordered by the Education Act, 1944?
5. Name as many British universities as you can. To which one of them would you like to go? What must you do in order to enter a university?

CHAPTER 14

THE GROWTH OF GOOD WILL

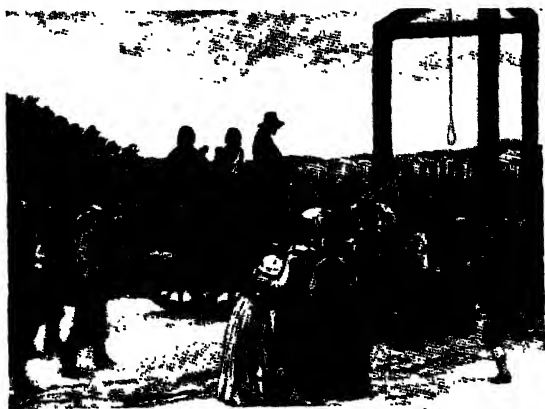
A Changing World. People sometimes say, "We live in a changing world." This is true, and it always has been true. Perhaps Noah said it when he was in the Ark! Sometimes the changes are slow, sometimes very quick, but change is always going on. This chapter is about a very great change that has occurred in Great Britain during the past two hundred years. It is often called the growth of humanitarianism. This simply means a change from cruelty to kindness.

Cruelty in the Past. For hundreds of years the people of Great Britain were keen, brave, and hard-working—and cruel. Old women who were said to be witches were burned to death, with crowds of people laughing at their sufferings. Witch-burnings were no longer taking place when George III became King, but they had not long ceased, and there were many people still living at that time in Scotland who had seen the burning of a witch.

Men, women, and children were still being sentenced to death for crimes which to-day would not be thought very serious, such as destroying trees, damaging river banks, damaging Westminster Bridge, walking in London with a blackened face, or stealing articles worth a few shillings, as well as for grave crimes like highway robbery, wounding cattle, and receiving stolen goods, and they were hanged in public at Newgate or Tyburn. Crowds of people would gather to see the hangings and to jeer at the wretches who were to die.

Men were sometimes made to stand with their heads fixed in the pillory; people might throw stones at them and hurt them severely, and even kill them. Prisoners were sometimes made to work the treadmill—a kind of wheel with steps on it; men on the treadmill had to keep it moving by treading on one step after another without stopping to rest.

Flogging was very common. Men, women, and children were flogged with the cat-o'-nine-tails. They might be flogged through the streets of a town merely for begging. Convicts who were sent to Australia were often flogged, perhaps with hundreds of lashes. Soldiers and sailors were flogged; an officer could order four dozen lashes for a small offence, while three hundred lashes

*Weaver Smith*

HANGING AT TYBURN

or more might be given by a court-martial. In 1816 a soldier of good character, sixty years old, who had served in the army for many years, was sentenced to receive three hundred lashes for overstaying his leave by one day! After the Battle of Waterloo it was thought that the men who had fought in the battle should be rewarded in some way; the reward that was given them was that they should not receive more than one hundred lashes at one time!

Change of Feeling. All that has been changed, and we can feel glad that we do not live in the "good old times." Even in the eighteenth century there were many people who were not cruel at heart and who thought that cruelty ought to be stopped. The Methodists, who were the followers of John Wesley, tried to live

good lives and be kind to other people, and in the Church of England also there were many people who tried to turn others away from cruelty. It was probably the influence of such people that led to the growth of more kindly feeling throughout the nation.

The Treatment of Children. One way in which the change has been greatest is in the treatment of children. In the early days of the factory system children had to work for many hours each day at the machines; they were badly fed; they were not sent to school; and they were often beaten. By the Factory Acts their hours of work were reduced and the age of entry to the factories was raised, though it was not till 1918 that child labour in the factories was abolished.

Young children were sent to work in the darkness of coal mines until the Mines Act of 1842 forbade the employment of boys under ten and girls of any age under ground. In later acts the age for boys was raised; it is now illegal for boys under fourteen to work in the mines, and before many years the age of entry will be sixteen.

Chimneys were swept by little boys who had to climb them, forcing their way through the soot. They were sometimes stuck fast in narrow chimneys, and their cruel masters would light fires to force them to move. Several Acts of Parliament were passed to protect these children, and at length it became illegal for a chimney-sweep to take a boy under sixteen into a house where a chimney was to be swept.

Many of the acts about factories, mines, and chimneys were brought forward by Lord Ashley, who throughout his life tried to improve the condition of children who were being badly treated. Lord Ashley was one of the best men of the nineteenth century, but even he would not have been able to do so much if people had not been ready to support him.

Yet even to-day children are sometimes neglected or ill-treated by their parents or by other people. In 1884 the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children was founded. It employs inspectors in all the large towns of the country, and

when they hear of the ill-treatment of a child they inquire into it. In many cases the parents do not wish to be unkind but do not know what to do for their children, and the inspectors advise and help them. When parents or other people are really cruel they

*Weaver Smith***CHIMNEY-SWEEPS**

are prosecuted and are often sent to prison. Nothing so quickly arouses the anger of most people to-day as a story of cruelty to a child.

In the nineteenth century there were in London and other towns children who had no homes and who lived in the streets. They were ragged and dirty, and they lived only by begging or stealing. Many of them died of cold or hunger or disease, and those who grew up were almost certain to become criminals. In 1867 a

young doctor, Thomas Barnardo, opened a home for boys in Stepney, in East London, and a few years later a home for girls was established at Barkingside, in Essex. Barnardo had no money, but he made known how greatly such homes were needed, and many people sent him money. Other homes were opened, and Dr. Barnardo and his friends were able to say, "No destitute child ever refused admission." The children were cared for and were trained to earn their living. Many of them, when they were old enough, were sent to Canada or one of the other Dominions. It is believed that the Barnardo homes have cared for over half a million children in eighty years.

Similar homes for orphan children have been established by the Church of England and by other religious bodies, and children no longer live in the streets without homes to go to

The Treatment of Slaves. The slave trade in the eighteenth century was exceedingly cruel. The story of its ending and of the abolition of slavery itself has been told in another chapter. Slavery was abolished because it was felt to be wrong; it would have been an evil thing even if slaves had always been treated kindly. They were not always well treated, and no doubt the tales of cruelty to slaves that were told by missionaries and others made people the more determined to bring slavery to an end.

The Treatment of Soldiers and Sailors. Flogging was continued in the army and navy for many years; people thought that soldiers and sailors would not obey their officers if there was no fear of their being whipped. At length flogging was stopped. Discipline in the army and navy did not become worse as a result of the better treatment of the men.

The Treatment of Prisoners. Even prison life is not so cruel as it was formerly. There is no treadmill, and other harsh forms of punishment have been abolished. Men who are in prison are there because they have broken the law, and they cannot expect to have an easy time. They may have to work hard in prison, but though they are treated firmly there is no cruelty. There

is no longer any pillory, and when a criminal is sentenced to death—for murder or treason—he is hanged within the prison and not in the open street.

The Treatment of Animals. The good treatment that is given to human beings is extended to animals. Cruel sports, such as bull-baiting, bear-baiting, and cock-fighting, are illegal. The hunting of foxes, hares, and deer still goes on, but many people think that this, too, should be stopped. People do not like to inflict pain on animals. Animals can suffer pain, and as they are subject to human beings it is right for their owners to treat them kindly. If an animal suffers from some disease or is badly hurt in an accident it may be necessary to destroy it; this should be done as painlessly as possible.

Yet, as there are still some people who are cruel to children, so also there are some who are cruel to animals. The Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals looks out for those who inflict pain on animals, and prosecutes them.

The Treatment of the Sick. Sick people are better cared for nowadays than they were two hundred years ago. Hundreds of hospitals have been built, most of them with money given by kindly people who think that sick people and those who have met with accidents should have the best possible care.

Cruelty To-day. Cruelty still exists in some other parts of the world. While the Nazis were in power in Germany they treated most cruelly Jews and people whom they considered to be enemies of the state. The Japanese were, if possible, even worse, and their treatment of prisoners of war was shocking. The cruelty of Germans and Japanese made the British and Americans the more determined to carry the war on until these nations were utterly beaten and made powerless to act in such a way in future.

Good Feeling To-day. On all sides, whenever people are in distress, others are willing to help them. If an old lady is taken ill in the street people go to her assistance. If a blind man wishes

to cross a street someone will guide him across. If a young child is lost and is found crying people take charge of him till his parents are discovered.

People are very ready to give money in answer to an appeal for any worthy cause. In the course of one week recently there were one hundred and eleven appeals mentioned in *The Times*; no doubt money was received for every one of these.

Many boys are scouts and many girls are guides, and it is a rule followed by all good scouts and guides that they shall do a good turn to somebody every day. This is a good rule, and those who form the habit while they are boys and girls continue to do good turns to others when they grow up. Two hundred years ago nobody thought of doing a good turn to somebody else every day. That is one proof that we live in a world that has changed—and changed for the better.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Give three or four examples of the cruelty that was common two hundred years ago.
2. Mention three or four ways in which the treatment of children was improved in the nineteenth century.
3. Write a short account of the improvement in the treatment of animals.
4. What is done to prevent cruelty at the present day?

CHAPTER 15

THE LIFE OF THE PEOPLE

Many Changes. England has changed in many ways during the past two hundred years. Some of these changes have been described in other chapters of this book—the change from handwork to machine work and from work at home to work in the factories, the change from open fields to enclosed farms, and the change from cruelty to kindness. This chapter will describe the life of the people in the eighteenth century and in the twentieth, and it will be found that life has changed in many ways, and usually for the better.

Houses. In the eighteenth century there were not enough houses for the people, especially in the factory towns which were growing very quickly. Houses were built for the factory workers, but they were very small. They were built in long rows, side by side and back to back, and they had no gardens either in front or at the back. Streets were narrow and dirty, and there was nowhere for very young children to play except in the streets. (Older children did not play; they worked in the factories.) There was no proper drainage, and water was not supplied to each house. When people wanted water they had to fetch it from a tap at the end of the street.

At the time this book is being written there are still not enough houses for all the people; this is partly, though not entirely, because many houses were destroyed by bombing during the war of 1939-45. Houses are now being built, and it is expected that in a few years there will be a modern house for every family in town or country. Houses built in the twentieth century are better than those of two centuries ago; they are larger and contain several rooms; they have a supply of water, and most of them

contain baths; and there is a proper system of drainage. Some of them are lit by gas, but electric light is now very common, whereas in the eighteenth century lighting was by candles.

The Working Classes. The workers are much better off to-day than they were in the eighteenth century. At the time of the Industrial Revolution wages were low in town and country, and though there was some improvement in the nineteenth century many people were still underpaid. At the beginning of the twentieth century more than a million people in London were living in poverty. Industries in which wages were very low were known as sweated industries, and in 1906 the *Daily News* organised an exhibition in London of work done by sweated labour. It was made known to the public that many thousands of women who worked at making match-boxes or clothes earned only a few shillings a week. In 1908 Trade Boards were set up with power to order the payment of better wages in industries in which they were too low.

Workers now not only receive higher wages but they work for fewer hours in the week. In some industries men work only five days in the week, and in years to come this is likely to be the rule in all industries.

People who have children receive a payment from the Government for every child except the first. When they are ill or have no work they receive sickness pay or unemployment pay; when they are old they receive an old age pension; and if the father of a family should die his widow receives a pension for herself and her children.

Food. Food is better, and there is more of it. In the early days of the Industrial Revolution food was so dear and men, women, and children were so badly paid that often they had not enough to eat. The chief food of town workers was bread. They could not often afford to buy meat or butter, and most of them never tasted fruit. The commonest drink was tea. In the country the labourer and his family were badly fed, though he might have a garden in which some food could be grown. It is not

surprising that poor men in the country went out by night to catch rabbits or pheasants. This was poaching, and if poachers were caught they were punished very severely.

There has been much more food during the twentieth century, much of it coming to Great Britain from foreign countries. Bread, meat, fish, bacon, butter, cheese, eggs, and milk have been plentiful and cheap, and it has been possible to buy many kinds of fruit and vegetables. Food was rationed during the war of 1914-18, and it was rationed again during and after the war of 1939-45. Great Britain is now well supplied with food, and rationing has ended here, but serious shortage still exists in some parts of the world.

Clothing. Clothing, too, is better than it was in former times. When people were very poor they had to wear clothes for a very long time, until they were dirty and in rags. In recent times people have been able to buy more clothes, and they wear different suits or dresses for various purposes—smartly cut clothes for everyday wear, white flannels for cricket and tennis, shorts for hiking, grey flannels for gardening and other spare-time occupations. There are now many different materials for clothes. Women and girls have dresses of wool, cotton, linen, and silk, and these are in many bright colours. But though they have many changes of clothing they do not wear so much at one time; their frocks are thinner and shorter than they used to be. Not many years ago six yards of material were needed for a lady's dress; she now wears a frock made of not more than three yards. As with food, the supply of clothing became less during the war, but there is now enough for everybody.

The Household. There is much more furniture in the houses, and it is usually well made and comfortable. Clocks and watches are found in every home, and many people possess musical instruments. Very few houses are without a wireless set, and bicycles are very common. A great many houses have a supply of very cheap electricity. (In one town the cost of electric current before the war was £1 for 800 units, and there may have

been places where it was even cheaper.) The housewife can cook, wash clothes, iron them, do sewing, and clean the house by electricity, and there is of course electric light in every room and passage. These things all help to make life easier and more comfortable than it was in the time of George III.

Books and Newspapers. In former times many of the people were not educated, some of them being unable even to read and write. That is true of very few people nowadays. Every child attends school and learns not only reading and writing but many other things as well. A daily newspaper is delivered to most houses in town and country; many people buy evening papers as well, and weekly papers and monthly magazines are often read. There were never so many books as there are to-day; few houses are without a book-case or book shelves, and in every town and many villages there is a public library from which books may be borrowed. It is not easy for us to imagine what the life of the poor, without books or newspapers, was like in the eighteenth century. They could know nothing of what was going on in the world, or even in other parts of their own country.

Public Health. Families were large in former times. It was common for a family to contain eight or ten or twelve children, or even more, while in these times it is unusual for more than two or three children to belong to one household. Yet, if more children were born then, more died. Of the babies that were born, very many died before they were a year old, and not many lived long enough to grow up, while to-day the greatest possible care is taken of young children.

While people were crowded in very small dirty houses with no proper drainage and not much water, diseases broke out and death often followed. Nowadays all towns and many country districts have an excellent water supply. People in the twentieth century are cleaner than those of the eighteenth. A daily bath was unheard of in the time of the four Georges. Disease has become less common because of better drainage and better water supply. Life cannot be healthy without these.

Drinking. The habits of the people have changed. There was not much amusement for those who lived in factory towns in the eighteenth century. There might be a cock-fight or a prize-fight now and then, but as a rule the only way by which men and women could escape for an hour or two from their dreary working life was to visit a public house. In the first half of the eighteenth century a strong spirit called gin was drunk by people in the large towns. There were 16,000 ginshops in London, some of which put up such notices as, "Drunk for a penny, dead drunk for twopence, clean straw for nothing."

But after 1750 a heavy tax was placed on gin; poor people could not afford to buy it, and those who went to public houses drank beer, which was cheaper. Drunkenness was common, and remained so throughout the nineteenth century. For several reasons it has become much rarer in the twentieth century. It is now considered disgraceful to be drunk, and there are few people who would not be ashamed to be found drunk in the street. Then, too, beer is not so cheap as it was, since it is now heavily taxed. Public houses are not allowed to remain open all day; they are open for about two hours in the middle of the day and four hours in the evening. But perhaps the greatest reason why people drink less beer than formerly is that they need not go to a public house for amusement. Many people have allotments on which they work during the summer evenings. And there are cinemas to which a whole family can go for less money than would be spent in a public house.

Gambling. If there is less drinking than formerly there is more gambling. Men and women bet on the results of horse-races, though they cannot leave their work to see the races, and they know about the horses nothing more than they can read in their newspapers. They bet also on dog-races, which are held in the evening, so that they often go to the racecourse to place their bets. The most widespread form of gambling to-day is on the results of football matches. In the football pools people risk their money every week in the hope of winning thousands of pounds, although their chance of success is so slight.

Motoring. Many people, even of the working classes, now own motor-cars or motor-cycles. They can thus get about very quickly, for shopping or visiting. They can go for trips into the country on summer evenings and for longer journeys at week-ends. When they go away for a holiday in summer they often travel by car and do not use the railway. They take their luggage with them on the car, and they go from door to door.

Holidays. It is hard to believe that few people had holidays in the eighteenth century. Work went on all the year round, and people often lived all their lives in one place without ever leaving it.

With the building of railways travelling became easier and far more common. The Cheap Trains Act was passed in 1844; all railways were compelled to run at least one train in each direction every day at fares not greater than one penny per mile. For other trains the fare was usually at the rate of three-halfpence per mile until 1872, when the Midland Railway reduced all its third-class fares to one penny per mile, and other companies soon did the same. Increased costs have now made travel by railway more expensive.

Bank Holidays were started in 1871. Six days in the year—Good Friday, Easter Monday, Whit Monday, the first Monday in August, Christmas Day, and Boxing Day—were set apart as holidays. (The days are not quite the same in Scotland.) Banks were to be closed on these days, and shops and factories were expected to close also. Excursion trains were run to the seaside, and hundreds of thousands of people were able to take a short holiday from work.

People with families now commonly have a seaside holiday of several days in the summer every year. Many people go on walking or cycle or motor tours, visiting towns and villages and seeing the many beautiful places which are to be found in this country.

The Standard of Life. Only a few of the improvements in the life of the people that have been made in the past two centuries (and

mainly in the last fifty years) have been described in this chapter. Many others might be mentioned, but enough has been written to show that life to-day is much pleasanter than it was in the past. It is said that the "standard of life" to-day is higher than ever before. Yet it need not be thought that everything is now perfect. We should aim at a higher standard, so that in the next hundred years there may be as great an advance as has occurred since George III became king.

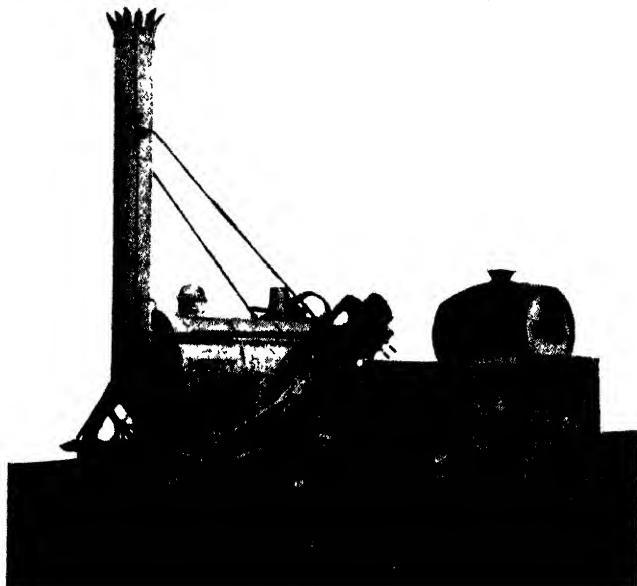
QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Compare the houses that are built to-day with those of the eighteenth century.
2. Compare the food of the common people in the twentieth century with that of two centuries ago.
3. Make a list of the comforts of everyday life that are common now but were not possessed by the common people in the reign of George III.
4. Mention some of the changes in the habits of the people in the past two centuries.
5. In what ways, and why, are people of the twentieth century more healthy than those of the eighteenth?

CHAPTER 16

INVENTIONS

What is an Inventor? An inventor is a person who finds things out, and an invention is the thing he has found. (The word "invent" comes from a Latin word meaning "to find.") An



THE "ROCKET"

inventor is not a creator; he cannot make something out of nothing. He finds out something that was not known before, something that was hidden from the knowledge of men and which he now discovers. But it was always there, waiting to be discovered. To-day, men can put pieces of steel and aluminium and wood together in a certain way and make an aeroplane; they put petrol in its tank, and it can be made to fly. If this had been done in the time of William the Conqueror an aeroplane would have been

made then. It was not done then because men did not know how to do it; the knowledge was hidden from them; it has since been found out, and the aeroplane has been invented.



L.N.E.R. Official Photo

A MODERN LOCOMOTIVE

How an Invention is made. It is often thought that an inventor is a very clever man who in a lucky moment thinks of something that has not been known before. Sometimes, though not very often, an invention happens in this way. Much more often an invention is the work of many people who are searching for a new way of doing something; each of them finds out a little bit, and the invention results from the work of all of them. It cannot be said that any one of them by himself is the inventor. Not long ago, an atomic bomb was invented, but nobody can name its inventor; hundreds of men of science worked for years and put their knowledge together before the bomb could be made. And even when there is a lucky "find" it usually has to be improved in many ways before it is of much use. Samuel Crompton invented the spinning machine known as the mule, but the mules in Lancashire to-day are very different from Crompton's mule. George Stephenson invented more than one steam locomotive, but the giant express engines now in use are not much like his "Rocket" and "Locomotion No. 1."

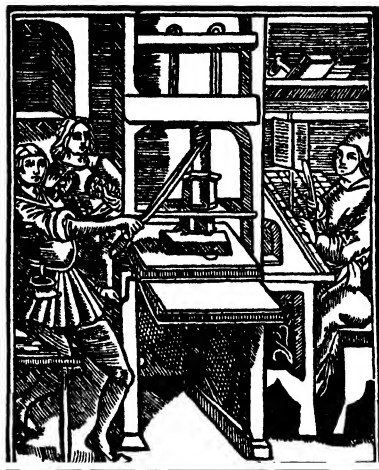
Inventions in All Ages. Men have been finding things out—inventing them—ever since they lived on the earth. Some of the most useful inventions were made in prehistoric times. Before there was any written history men had discovered fire; they had learned to cook food; they had learned to sow seed and gather the crops; they had invented the wheel (no doubt the first wheel ever made was a slice of a tree-trunk); they had invented some simple tools and weapons. Inventions have been made ever since. But there have been more inventions in the last two centuries than ever before, and it seems likely that in future years there will be ever more wonderful discoveries.

Matches. Some of the simple things that we use every day are of quite modern invention. As stated above, fire was discovered in prehistoric times; yet no easy and safe way of producing fire was found until the nineteenth century. Until little more than a hundred years ago a flame was obtained by striking flint and steel together; a spark fell upon a mass of tinder and was then blown into a flame. Matches of different kinds were invented by several men, the best known of whom was John Walker, a chemist of Stockton-on-Tees. For the match-head several substances were tried, but most of them were dangerous because they might burst into flame without being rubbed. At length, by the middle of the nineteenth century, a safety match was produced; the flame could be obtained only by rubbing the match-head on a specially prepared surface. In other words, the match could be used only by "striking it on the box."

Industrial Inventions. The most important inventions in the reign of George III were the steam-engine and the machines for spinning and weaving cotton and wool and the discoveries of chlorine for bleaching and of roller printing. These have been described in other chapters. During the nineteenth and twentieth centuries machines have been invented for use in a great many other industries—brick-making, pottery, glass, linoleum, the minting of coins, paper-making, brewing, leather, plastics, and many others. The post office has machines for stamping letters,

the timber merchant for cutting and planing and polishing wood, the miner for cutting coal, the railway booking clerk for stamping dates on tickets, the dry-cleaner for cleaning clothes. It would be quite impossible to describe all these machines in this chapter. Machines are used in every important industry, and in many of them new and improved machines are often replacing those of an older type.

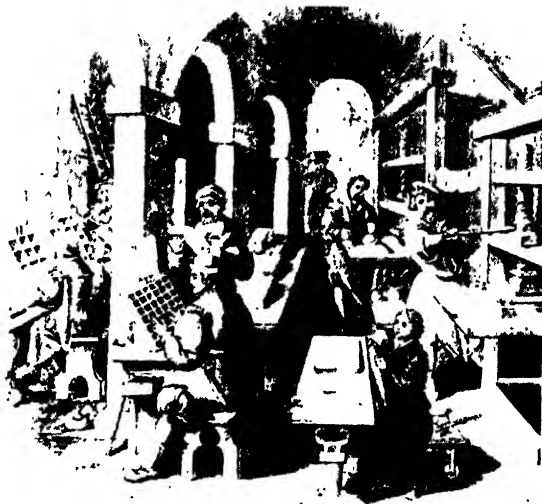
Machines in Printing. Before printing was invented in the fifteenth century books were written by hand. In the earliest printing a whole page was cut on one block of wood. It could be inked and any number of copies taken off, but the blocks of wood could not be used for any other book. With the invention of movable type each letter was cut separately, and the types were arranged to



AN EARLY PRINTING PRESS

form words, sentences, and full pages, and when the printing was complete they could be sorted out and used again for another piece of work. Movable types were used until nearly the end of the nineteenth century, and they are still used for some kinds of work, such as handbills and posters. Near the end of the nineteenth century the linotype machine was invented; as its name shows, it set a line of type at once by the operator pressing the keys on a keyboard. The letters formed one block, made of molten lead, and if a mistake was made the whole line had to be set again. The monotype machine is often used now instead of the linotype; the operator presses the keys of a keyboard and separate letters are cast and slide into place, and if a mistake is made it is only the wrong letter that has to be changed. The type of this book was set by monotype.

The actual printing is done in a press. The press was formerly worked by hand, but in 1814 *The Times* was printed by a steam press which turned out 1100 copies per hour. Improved presses were used later in the century, the Hoe press in 1846 and the

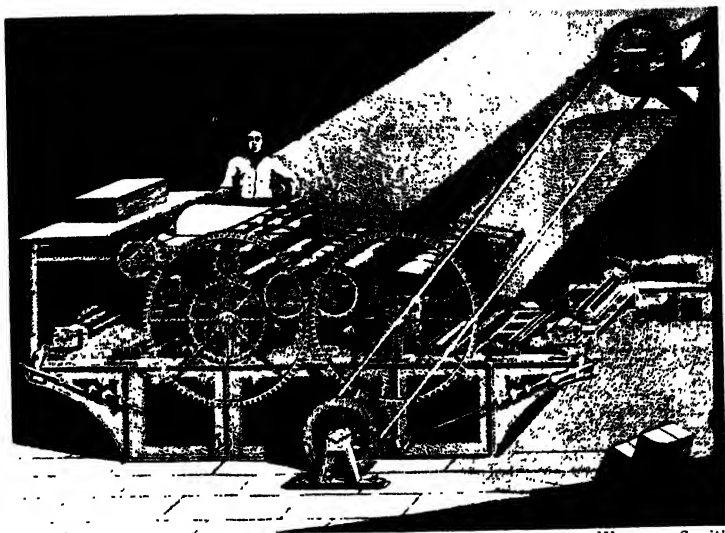


Weaver Smith

A SIXTEENTH-CENTURY PRINTING PRESS

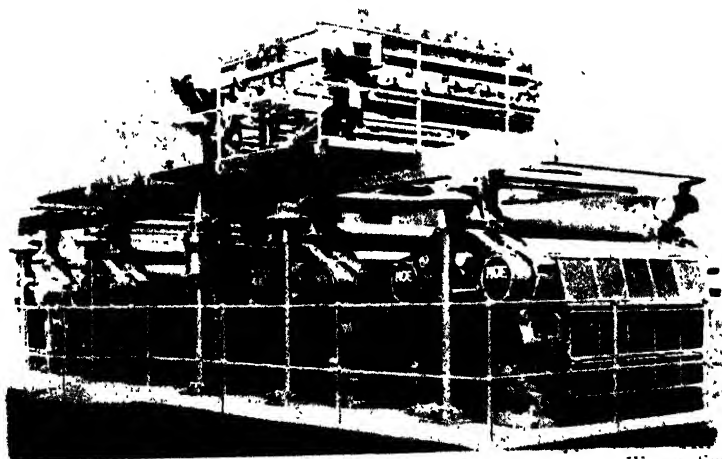
Walter press in 1868. Now giant presses that will print as many as 300,000 copies per hour are used by all the great daily newspapers. If such presses had not been invented it would not be possible for every house in the country to have its newspapers every morning. And it is only by the use of great machines which turn out large numbers of copies that such cheap books as those in the "Everyman's Library," the "Literature of Yesterday and To-day" series, and the "Kings Treasuries of Literature" can be produced.

Inventions in Business. A business office used to be a place in which clerks sat at desks to write letters and enter figures in



Weaver Smith

AN 1850 PRINTING PRESS



Weaver Smith

A MODERN PRINTING PRESS

account books. In the business office of the present day letters are never written by hand; they are typed on a typewriter. The first typewriter was invented in 1874; it was heavy and noisy, it had only capital letters, and the sheet of paper could not be seen while the work was being done. Typewriters have been improved in all these respects. The sheet is fixed so that the work can be seen, there are capital and small letters, and the machine is easily lifted and is quiet to work.

Adding machines are used in banks and insurance offices and in most large businesses where big sums of money are dealt with every day. Card indexes are used; a card for every customer, a card for every insurance policy, a card for every book in a library, and so on, and there are machines which will pick out cards that are wanted while leaving those that are not required. Most shops, and most offices in which money is taken, have cash-registers which show the amount of money received. The cash-register adds up all these amounts, thus showing the amount that should be in the till at the end of the day; this prevents any dishonest shop assistant from stealing money.

Inventions in the Railway System. The railway systems of this and other countries have been built up with the help of hundreds of inventions. Locomotives are continually being improved; locomotive engineers are always at work thinking out better types of engine. Many types of brake have been tried, each one better than those in use before it. Different systems of coupling have been thought out. Only fifty years ago railway carriages were not heated in winter. A large flat tin containing hot water was put on the floor of the carriage; the passenger placed his feet on the warmer until the water cooled, and then he kicked it under the seat. Carriages were dimly lit by oil-lamps fixed in the roof. Inventions have made it possible to warm carriages by heat from the engine and to light them by electricity. Signalling on a railway has been improved by many new inventions.

Motors. One of the most important of modern inventions is the motor. It has provided the motor-car for people and the motor-

van for goods, on the roads; on some stretches of railway coaches are driven by motors instead of being drawn by engines; motors are often used instead of engines to provide the power for working machinery; motors are used instead of steam-engines in many ships at sea; and without motors there would have been no aeroplanes.

Electrical Inventions. The number of inventions connected with electricity is so great that only a few of them can be mentioned. Some railways are run by electricity instead of by steam-engines; underground railways are nearly always worked in this way, and a large part of the Southern Railway is now electric. Electricity is used for the running of street cars. Electric trams were first run in 1882, but they are not much used to-day. They are being replaced by trolley-buses, which also are run by electricity.

The electric telegraph was invented early in the reign of Queen Victoria, and in 1846 a company was formed to set up a telegraph system throughout the country. The railway companies had, and still have, their own telegraph system; messages are sent from one signal box to another so that if the line is not clear a train may be stopped by a signal at danger.

The telegraph is used for urgent private messages. It was soon found to be useful for urgent messages of another kind, as criminals found to their cost. When a thief had boarded a train with the articles he had stolen he no doubt thought he was safe; he must have been surprised to be arrested on leaving the train, a telegraph message having warned the police at the end of his journey to look out for him. (To-day, such a message would be telephoned.)

In 1851 a cable was laid in the English Channel, and it became possible to send telegraphic messages between England and France. The success of this cable led men to think of laying a cable in the Atlantic. Several attempts were made, but they failed, as the cable broke every time. In 1858 a cable was actually laid by ships working from both sides of the Atlantic; when they met, the two ends of the cable were joined, and it became possible to send messages between the Old World and the New.

Unfortunately, a few weeks later the cable broke, and no further attempt was made for some years. At length, in 1866, a cable was laid from a large British ship, the *Great Eastern*, and it has



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LAYING THE ATLANTIC CABLE

been in use ever since. In later years cables have been laid under oceans and seas in other parts of the world.

The telephone was invented in 1876 by Bell and Edison, and it is now so much used that people can speak by it to others not only in their own town but in other parts of the country and even in distant countries.

Many people have taken part in the invention of wireless, though one of the foremost was Marconi. It is of great use in keeping ships at sea in touch with land. It has made travel by sea much safer, for if a ship meets with an accident and help is needed it can send out a wireless message (S O S) to other ships which hasten to assist it.

Wireless broadcasting has now been going on for over thirty years. Not many houses are without a wireless set, and people can hear news, music, talks, and entertainment of various kinds in their own homes.

Many things can be done in the home by touching electric switches. Electric light, electric radiators, cookers, washing-machines, flat-irons, toasters, vacuum cleaners, refrigerators, water-heaters, sewing-machines, and wireless sets—all are run by electricity.

Photography and the Cinema. One of the most interesting group of inventions is connected with photography. Daguerre, a Frenchman, in 1839 produced pictures on a copper plate coated with silver. An Englishman, William Talbot, invented the negative, from which any number of pictures could be printed on sensitised paper. For many years negatives were of glass, but in 1884 film negatives were invented. More recently, colour photography has been developed.

The moving pictures of the cinema were invented near the end of the nineteenth century. In 1896 the victory of the Prince of Wales's horse, Persimmon, in the Derby, was shown in a theatre in London. It was not until 1929 that sound pictures (commonly called talkies) were produced. (Very few silent films are shown nowadays.) Coloured films have been introduced in recent years.

The Phonograph and the Gramophone. The first phonograph—for recording sounds and giving them out again—was invented by Edison in 1876. As with other inventions, many men have made improvements, and the gramophone of the present day is a very different instrument from the original phonograph. The dictaphone is an instrument of this kind which is used by some business men. It will record a conversation between two men, and if at a later time there is any uncertainty as to what has been said the dictaphone will reproduce the conversation. Letters can be spoken into the dictaphone and a secretary can type them afterwards.

Scientific Instruments. It would be quite impossible to describe the great number of scientific instruments that have been invented and improved in recent years, and only two or three can be mentioned. Telescopes were invented early in the seventeenth century, and larger and better telescopes have been made from time to time. In the United States there is a telescope one hundred inches in diameter, and one with a diameter of two hundred inches is being built. With such powerful instruments as these astronomers can find out much more about the moon, the planets, and the stars. The spectroscope is an instrument for splitting up a beam of light into the colours of the rainbow. It is used for many purposes, and it enables men of science to discover what materials exist in distant stars and planets. The microscope is an instrument which makes very small objects appear larger, so that they can be studied.

Medical and Surgical Inventions. The work of doctors and surgeons has been assisted by so many discoveries in the nineteenth century that only a very few of the most important can be mentioned here.

When a serious operation, such as the removal of an appendix or of a badly injured leg, is to be performed, the patient is given an anaesthetic, such as ether or chloroform. The effect of the anaesthetic is to make him sleep through the operation, so that no pain is felt. Before the discovery of anaesthetics in the middle of the nineteenth century an operation was regarded as a terrible thing; it was so painful that people sometimes wished to die rather than undergo it. Many doctors shared the honour of discovering the use of anaesthetics; one of the best known of them was Sir James Simpson.

For less important operations local anaesthetics, such as cocaine, are used. The patient is not put to sleep, but the part of the body which is to be treated is deadened. A local anaesthetic is often used when a tooth is to be extracted; it is injected into the gum, and the tooth is drawn out without pain.

In time past, operations were often fatal because germs found their way into the wounds, and blood-poisoning would follow.

This rarely happens now because antiseptics are used to kill the germs, or aseptics to keep the germs away from the wound. The great surgeon who brought antiseptics into use was Lord Lister.

Professor Röntgen, a German, discovered X-rays in 1896. By their use photographs of the inside of the human body can be taken, and if anything is wrong it can be seen and treatment can be given. If a bone has been broken the exact position of the break can be seen, and when the bone is set another X-ray photograph will show whether the broken parts have been put together properly.

Another important discovery in recent years is the use of radium in cases of cancer and other diseases. Meningitis and pneumonia are treated with penicillin and with a drug commonly called M. and B., one of a group known as the Sulpha drugs. An even more wonderful drug, streptomycin, is being used in cases of typhoid fever, dysentery, and food poisoning, but it has not been known long, and it is not yet certain how far it is effective.

D.D.T. The powder known as D.D.T. was of great value in the war of 1939-45. It was used for destroying insects, and with it soldiers were able to keep their uniforms free from vermin. Since the war it has come into more general use. It is effective for destroying house flies, and it is used to keep moth out of clothes. The powder can be dissolved in oil, and clothes which are treated with it are said to be moth-proof even after being washed or cleaned many times. D.D.T. is useful in the garden for destroying the many pests which attack vegetables and flowers.

The Preservation of Food. Some kinds of food will not remain good very long without being preserved, though some foods will last longer than others; wheat will keep for some years, while milk goes bad in a day or two. Certain foods, such as fish and fruit, which are properly sealed in tins will remain good for a very long time. Such food may be sent from one country to another,

and in years when there is more than is needed it can be kept for use in years of scarcity. Meat can be kept for a long time in refrigerators.

Concrete. One of the most useful of modern inventions is concrete, which is made of stone, sand, and cement, mixed together in the right proportions. Concrete is used by itself, or with steel rods embedded in it, for many purposes. Buildings of all kinds are constructed of concrete, and so are bridges, docks, and breakwaters. Smaller things, such as gate posts and lamp standards, are made of it, and it is used in the making of roads.

War. Inventors in the twentieth century have been busy in another direction—in producing things to be used in waging war. They have invented new rifles, machine-guns, tanks, flame-throwers, mines and torpedoes, besides bombs of various kinds and explosive rockets. The paravane was invented to protect ships from mines. The latest great invention for purposes of war is the atomic bomb. We cannot say that it is a pity these things were invented, for they enabled us to overcome a cruel enemy, but we can say that it is a pity they had to be invented. And it must be remembered that some of the war inventions will be of great use in time of peace. Radar was invented in this country in order to detect the approach of enemy aircraft; it is now in regular use to assist aircraft to land safely in foggy weather. The splitting of the atom was used for the making of a bomb; the power produced by splitting atoms is very great, and it is now being applied to peaceful as well as warlike purposes.

The Progress of Invention. Many inventions have been mentioned in this chapter. Many others might have been mentioned; no doubt the girls and boys who read this chapter will be able to think of some of them. The work of inventing—of finding out new things—is still going on, and we cannot think that it will ever come to an end. We know very much more of the secrets of nature than was known by the Cave Man, but much more

remains to be discovered. When this book has been published only a few years there will be many inventions more wonderful than any that are described here. Inventions that reduce the amount of hard work to be done in the world and that add to the happiness and comfort of human beings are all to the good and should help to make the world a better place for all in it.

ADDITIONAL NOTE (1955)

To the inventions for war mentioned on p. 136 must now be added the hydrogen bomb and guided atomic missiles. These have not yet been used in war and it is to be hoped that they never will be.

It is probable that Great Britain has done more than any other country in preparing to use atomic power for peaceful purposes, such as the generation of electricity.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What were the chief inventions of the reign of George III?
2. What inventions are associated with the following names: (a) George Stephenson, (b) Edison, (c) Henry Bell, (d) Hoover, (e) Talbot, (f) Marconi, (g) Daguerre, (h) Röntgen?
3. Make a list of electrical inventions that can be used in an ordinary household.
4. Make a list of inventions that have improved the railway system of Great Britain.
5. In what ways are motors used at the present day?
6. Make a list of inventions connected with sound.
7. Make a list of things in your home that have been invented since the beginning of the nineteenth century. Keep your list, and add other items to it as you think of them.

CHAPTER 17

HOW WE ARE RULED

Government by One Man. In many countries in time past the people have been ruled by one man, who has been known as the king or the emperor or the sultan, or by some other title. Some of these rulers have been good men who have tried to do their best for their subjects; others have been tyrants, harsh and cruel. In recent years some of the countries of Europe have come under the rule of men called dictators. Hitler was a dictator in Germany and Mussolini in Italy. Spain is ruled by a dictator, General Franco. In none of these countries have the people been asked to share in any way in the work of government, and they did not choose their ruler. The people were to be ruled, not to rule.

British Government. This is not the kind of government which exists in Great Britain. British government is a democracy; it is said to be government *of* the people *by* the people *for* the people. But this is not quite a true description. The people of Great Britain do not really rule the country. Whoever rules must give orders and make arrangements every day, and this could not be done by forty million people. If all of them gave orders what confusion there would be! What the people of Great Britain do is to *choose* their rulers, and, when they wish, to *change* their rulers.

The Queen. At the head of the country and its people is the Queen, but the Queen does not really rule, though many of the acts of government are done in her name. The Queen always acts on the advice of her ministers. They decide what is to be done, and though we may read in the newspapers that "the Queen has been pleased to appoint Mr. John Smith to be a Judge of the High Court," we know that this means that one of the ministers thought

that Mr. John Smith would be a good judge and that he advised the Queen to appoint him. Hence Mr. John Smith was really chosen to be a judge by the minister and not by the Queen.

Ministers. But who are the ministers? They are the leading men of one of the great parties in the state. At the present time there are two great parties, Conservative and Labour, though there are some other parties, mostly very small. When there is a General Election to choose members of the House of Commons, one of these parties has more members elected than the other, and it is said to have a majority in the House of Commons. Its leader becomes the Prime Minister, and he chooses other important members of the party to be ministers with him. They hold their offices so long as they have a majority in the House of Commons. There is a General Election every five years—sometimes oftener—and, if at the General Election the party in power loses a number of seats and the other party gains a majority, the ministers resign and the leaders of the other party come into power.

Elections. Members of the House of Commons are elected by the people, so that men and women by their votes can decide which party is to be in power and which set of ministers is to take office. It is in this way that the people choose their rulers, and, in any General Election, can change their rulers.

The House of Commons before it was reformed. Parliament consists of the Queen, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons. In the last two or three centuries the House of Commons has been the most important part of Parliament, because it is elected by the people. Even in the eighteenth century it was the most important part of Parliament, though at that time it could not be said to represent all the people, since only a few men had votes.

Some members of Parliament represented counties, and others represented towns. At the county elections only the people who owned land had the right to vote, so that none of the poor could vote. A farmer who owned his farm might vote, but not one

who paid a rent for his farm. In a few towns poor people were allowed to vote, but in most towns only the richer people could do so.

Then, too, large counties and towns had no more members in



Weaver Smith

AN OLD ELECTION

Parliament than small counties and towns. Some towns which sent members to the House of Commons were really tiny villages with very few voters—perhaps six or ten or twenty. One of these places, Old Sarum, was a grass-covered hill on which nobody lived; the only voter was the owner of the land, who by himself appointed the two members. Gatton was part of a private park whose owner appointed its members. Dunwich was a place that had been on the coast and was later under the sea; yet it still had two members. Long ago these places had been important, but they were so no longer. On the other hand, many large factory towns had grown up during the Industrial Revolution, and they had no members in Parliament at all.

In those places where there were very few voters—places known

as rotten boroughs—much bribery took place. Voters were offered money for their votes by both sides in an election, and they would vote for the candidate who gave the larger bribe. There was not so much bribery in the county elections as in those in small towns, since the county electors were all landowners, and as many of them were wealthy men they were not so ready to sell their votes for money.

The Need for Reform. It is certain that a House of Commons chosen in this way could not represent the people of Great Britain. Many people thought that Parliament ought to be reformed—that all large towns should have members and that small places should cease to elect members, and that many more people should have votes.

The Reform Act, 1832. In 1832 a parliamentary Reform Act was passed. The rotten boroughs lost their members; the new towns were given the right of sending members to Parliament; and large counties were given more members than small counties. More people were allowed to vote—the tenant-farmers in the counties, and men who paid a rent of ten pounds a year or more for their houses in towns. And that was all. The poorer people in town and country were still without votes—for the farm labourers in the country had no votes, and the town workers usually paid only two shillings or half a crown per week as rent for their houses, not enough to entitle them to a vote. Nothing was done to stop the bribery that still went on.

The Reform Acts of 1867 and 1884. Another Reform Act was passed in 1867. The right to vote was given to all men who owned or rented houses in towns, no matter how small was the rent, but in the country only to those who paid a rent of twelve pounds a year. As the labourers paid only three or four pounds a year, and sometimes nothing at all, for their cottages, they still could not vote.

In a third Reform Act, in 1884, the country labourers were at last given the right to vote.

Secret Voting. Another act made bribery illegal, but it really died out when voting became secret. Before this, voting was open; anybody could find out for which candidate a vote was given, and if a voter received a bribe it was known whether he did what he had been paid to do.

After the Ballot Act was passed in 1872 a voter gave his vote by putting a cross on a paper which was then placed with other voting papers in a box. As these papers were all mixed up together nobody else could know how he had voted, and even if he accepted a bribe he might still vote for the other candidate. From that time it was not worth while trying to bribe the electors.

Reform in the Twentieth Century. A fourth parliamentary Reform Act was passed in 1918. It rearranged the right of towns and counties to send members to Parliament, as nearly as possible in accordance with their population. It gave votes to all men in the country, and, for the first time, to all women over thirty years of age. A few years later, all women over twenty-one years old became entitled to vote.

Since that time the Government of Great Britain may be truly described as a democracy, since the country is ruled by ministers who lead the party which has a majority of members in the House of Commons, and these members are elected by the men and women of the country and not by only a few.

It is unlikely that any further reform will be needed in future as regards the right to vote, since that is now given to all grown persons. But from time to time there must be changes in the right of towns and counties to elect members. People move about; some towns grow larger and others smaller, and if nothing were done it might be found that some places would in time become little better than the old rotten boroughs. Even since 1918 there have been movements of population, and in 1948 there was a further redistribution of the seats in the House of Commons.

The House of Lords. Parliament passes laws and levies taxes. For a law to pass it must go through both Houses and the Queen must agree to it. The Queen always agrees, for, as stated above,

she acts on the advice of her ministers and they would never advise her not to agree to an act passed by both Houses.

But the House of Lords has sometimes refused to pass a bill which has gone through the House of Commons. In 1893 it rejected a bill for setting up a separate Parliament in Ireland after this bill had passed the Commons. Several bills which had gone through the House of Commons between 1906 and 1909 failed to pass the House of Lords, and in 1909 the Lords rejected the budget, which ordered the taxes for the year. As a result, the Parliament Act was passed in 1911. Since then, the House of Lords has had no power to reject a bill dealing with taxes, and though it can reject other bills it cannot do so for ever. Since 1949, if the House of Commons passes a bill the House of Lords may reject it once, but it becomes law when it is passed for the second time by the Commons whether the Lords then accept it or not. Very few bills have become law in this way, since the Lords now very rarely reject bills that have been passed by the Commons.

Yet the House of Lords is still a useful part of Parliament. The Lords discuss bills which have passed through the Commons, and they often suggest improvements which had not been thought of in the House of Commons.

The Civil Service. Governing such a country as Great Britain involves a great deal of work. Ministers may decide what is to be done and may give orders, but these orders have to be carried out by many thousands of men and women—clerks, inspectors, customs officers, and many others—who form the Civil Service.

Boys and girls, and young men and women, who wish to enter the Civil Service must sit for an examination, and if they are successful they are appointed. They usually remain in the Civil Service until they are old enough to retire with a pension. A large number of civil servants have come from the primary and secondary schools of this country.

Local Government. Parliament deals with national affairs and raises money to pay for them by levying taxes. Towns and

counties are ruled by councils which attend to the business of these places, and they raise the money they need by levying rates. They keep the roads in order and they attend to the paving, lighting, and cleaning of the streets, they keep the drainage system in order; they send refuse carts to collect the contents of dustbins; they provide public libraries, baths, schools, parks, and recreation grounds; they build houses; many of them provide hospitals, markets, and cemeteries; some of them run buses and provide electricity, gas, and water (though in some towns these things are provided by companies). These are only a few of the things done by the councils. Boys and girls who read the accounts in local newspapers of council meetings will find many other things that are done by a council.

Every county has its council, and some large counties are divided into two or three parts, each with its council. Yorkshire has a separate county council for each of its three ridings; Lincolnshire has three county councils, Suffolk two, and Sussex two. London also is a county with a county council. Some towns are so large and important that they are called county boroughs, and their councils have as much power as the councils of the counties. Some other towns are non-county boroughs, and the powers of their councils are not so great. In both county boroughs and non-county boroughs there is a mayor who is chairman of the council. (In several of the large county boroughs the mayor is called the Lord Mayor.) There are yet other towns which are not boroughs, but urban districts; their councils are very much like those of non-county boroughs, but they do not have a mayor. Outside the towns the county is cut up into rural districts, each of which has a council.

The members of these councils are chosen by the men and women who live in the town or county. The people who have votes at an election for members of Parliament also have the right, by voting, to choose the members of the councils. It will be seen, therefore, that local government as well as national government is democratic. The people choose their rulers and can, if they wish, change them. When the day of election comes many people do not trouble to vote. This is not right; it is the

duty of every man and every woman who is entitled to vote to do so. Certainly, if they do not like the way their town is governed they have no right to grumble if they did not trouble to use their votes at the last election.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. How far is it true that the people of Great Britain are ruled by the Queen? If it is not true, by whom are they ruled?
2. In what ways was the system of election of members of the House of Commons bad before 1832?
3. What changes were made in parliamentary elections by the Reform Act of 1832?
4. In what ways are the powers of the House of Lords less than those of the House of Commons?
5. Make as full a list as you can of the powers and duties of a town council.
6. Write four or five lines on each of the following: (*a*) county borough, (*b*) minister, (*c*) rotten borough, (*d*) ballot, (*e*) Lord Mayor, (*f*) urban district council.

CHAPTER 18

IRELAND

Irish Roman Catholics in the Eighteenth Century. Three-quarters of the people of Ireland are Roman Catholics, and during the eighteenth century there were many harsh laws against them. If a Roman Catholic landowner died his lands were divided equally among his sons, unless one of the sons turned Protestant, when he obtained the whole estate and his brothers had nothing. Roman Catholics might not sit in the Irish Parliament or vote at elections, they might not be officers in the army, or barristers, or schoolmasters, or even gamekeepers (for a gamekeeper carried a gun). Mixed marriages—of Roman Catholics and Protestants—were forbidden, and the priest who celebrated such a marriage might be hanged. Roman Catholic children were not to be sent out of the country to be educated, and the only schoolmasters in Ireland were Protestants. A Roman Catholic gentleman might not wear a sword, and if he possessed a good horse he was bound to sell it to any Protestant who offered him five pounds for it.

The Irish Parliament in the Eighteenth Century. There was an Irish Parliament at Dublin, but only Protestants could sit in it, and very few people had votes at the elections. It did not meet every year but only every other year, and when it met it had very little power. It could not pass any law without the consent of the British Government, while the British Parliament might pass laws for Ireland without the consent of the Irish Parliament. There was not often a general election in Ireland, and Parliament sometimes lasted many years. The Parliament which was elected in 1727 lasted till 1760. In the reign of George III a law was passed by which the Irish Parliament should not last more than eight years.

Irish Trade in the Eighteenth Century. Irish industry and trade were not allowed to compete with those of Great Britain. Much wool was produced in Ireland, but the Irish were not allowed to send it anywhere but to Great Britain, where wool was needed to feed the new machines. Yet the Irish could have obtained higher prices for their wool from the French, and sometimes a ship which sailed from Ireland with wool for an English port was met by a French ship and the cargo was transferred at sea. This was smuggling, and men who were caught doing it were hanged. There were rules also about the Irish linen industry, which was hindered so as not to injure the Scottish linen industry. Irish farmers produced butter and cheese which they were not allowed to send to Great Britain, lest it might be cheaper than the butter and cheese produced by British farmers.

Repeal of these Restrictions. In 1778 France declared war on Great Britain, and it seemed likely that the French would try to invade Ireland. Great Britain could not spare troops to defend Ireland, since they were needed for the war against the American colonies, and an army of volunteers, Catholic and Protestant, was raised in Ireland. At this time the Irish asked that the laws against them might be repealed, and it was hardly possible for Great Britain to refuse. The Irish volunteers were not rebels; they were loyal to the King and were ready to fight the French. But if their request were refused they might become rebels, at a time when Great Britain had no troops to oppose them. Most of the harsh laws were repealed in 1778.

In 1782 the Irish Parliament became independent. From this time it alone could make laws for Ireland, and the British Parliament gave up its right to do so. Yet the Irish Parliament was still a Protestant Parliament; Roman Catholics could not be elected to it, and it was not till 1793 that they could even vote at elections.

Wolfe Tone. In 1791 a society called the United Irishmen was formed by a young Irish lawyer, Wolfe Tone. He hoped that his society would contain both Protestants and Roman Catholics

and that they would work together for the good of Ireland. Few Protestants joined it, and it became a Roman Catholic society which aimed at the overthrow of British rule.

During the French Revolutionary War Tone hoped to get French help to free Ireland from British rule. He visited Paris, and it was arranged that a French fleet should take an army to Ireland. Tone sailed with the fleet in December, 1796, and soon learned to despise the French sailors, who were not so skilful as British seamen. The expedition came to nothing, since the ships were scattered by a storm and made their way back to France.

As he could obtain little further help from the French, Wolfe Tone arranged a rising of the United Irishmen in 1798, hoping to expel the British from the country and to set up an Irish republic like that of France. A small body of French soldiers landed in the west of Ireland, but they were soon captured, and, when General Lake defeated the rebels led by Father John Murphy at the Battle of Vinegar Hill, the rising was over. In the early days of the rising the Irish peasants had been very cruel towards any Protestants that they caught. The victorious soldiers were now very cruel to the Irish, many of whom were shot and others whipped, while their huts were burned. Wolfe Tone was caught and sentenced to death, but he committed suicide in prison.

The Union of Great Britain and Ireland. The rebellion of 1798 occurred because Irish people were discontented. It was put down, but the discontent of the people remained. (Crushing a rebellion does not make the rebels any happier.) William Pitt, the Prime Minister of Great Britain, thought that it would be good for both Great Britain and Ireland if the two countries were united under one Parliament and if Roman Catholics were allowed to become members of Parliament. The members of the Irish Parliament did not like the union, but many of them were bribed to vote for it, and it was accepted. The Act of Union was passed in 1800.

Freedom for Roman Catholics. Pitt then wanted all the remaining laws against Roman Catholics to be repealed, but George III would not agree to this. He thought that if he consented to it

he would be breaking the oath he took at his coronation, and he said he would place his head upon the block rather than give way. Some years before this he had had an attack of madness, from which he had recovered. He now became so much excited about the proposal to give freedom to Roman Catholics that it was feared he would go mad again. Pitt therefore gave up the idea, but he resigned his position as Prime Minister.

The Irish were very much disappointed. They had lost their own Parliament, and they had not gained full freedom for Roman Catholics. They felt that they had been tricked. Many English people thought that the laws against Roman Catholics ought to be abolished, but it was not till 1829, in the reign of George IV, that this was done. George IV, like his father, was against it, and he, too, talked of laying his head on the block. George III really meant what he said; George IV did not, and when the Bill passed through Parliament he gave his consent to it. Since 1829 Roman Catholics have been able to sit in the House of Lords and the House of Commons, and they have been allowed to hold any rank in the army and to hold other positions.

The Land Question in Ireland. Roman Catholics were free at last, but this did not end the troubles of the Irish. The real grievance of Irish peasants was of another kind. Much land in Ireland belonged to English landlords, because, after the Irish rebellions in Tudor and Stuart times, the lands of the rebels had been given to Englishmen. These estates were divided into very small farms, which were rented by the Irish. Most of the landlords lived in England, but they had agents in Ireland who collected the rents. An agent was expected to collect as much money as he possibly could; if he did not, he might be replaced by someone else who would do better. The agents made the rents as high as possible, so that the Irish tenant was always poor. If he worked very hard and raised larger crops on his piece of land the agent would think it was worth more, and would increase the rent. If the tenant would not or could not pay he was turned out, and there was always someone else ready to take the farm at the higher rent.

To some extent the troubles of Ireland in the middle of the nineteenth century were due to its growing population. In 1801 there were four and a half million people living in Ireland; in 1841 there were over eight millions. The population had nearly



Weaver Smith

IRISH PEASANTS

doubled in forty years, and the land could hardly find food for so many people. Whenever a small farm was to let there were sure to be many men ready to take it.

Not only did the Irish suffer from having to pay high rents, but they felt that the land really belonged to them and not to their landlords, since it had been taken from Irishmen in earlier times.

The factory system had not grown up in Ireland as in Great Britain. If the towns of Ireland had contained large factories many of the land workers would have gone to work in them, and the land agents would not have obtained such high rents for the farms.

Famine. The chief food of the Irish was the potato. In 1845 a disease attacked the potato crop, and all over the country fields of potatoes rotted. The disease continued in 1846 and 1847, and to some extent in later years. The people were faced with famine, and though large quantities of wheat and maize were sent into the country many people died of starvation. From this time many Irish left their own country. Some came to Great Britain; in some towns, such as London, Glasgow, and Liverpool, the numbers of Irish are very large, and there are some Irishmen in most towns. Others of the Irish went to the United States and settled there; it is believed that two million Irishmen crossed the Atlantic in the ten years following the famine.

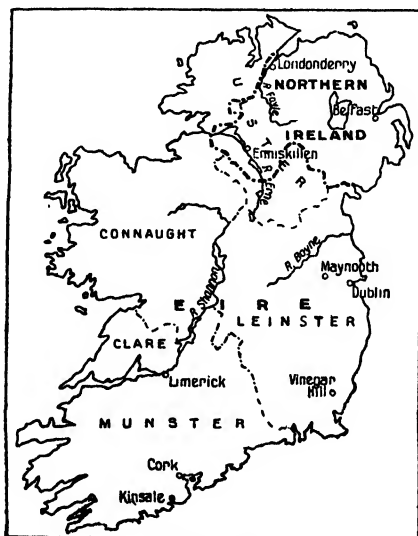
Laws about Irish Land. This land system existed throughout the nineteenth century, though towards the end of the century laws were passed to enable rents to be fixed at a fair level and to prevent them from being raised, and also to protect the tenants from being turned out of their farms so long as they paid their rents.

But it was felt that the best way of settling the Irish land question was to make the Irish land worker the owner instead of the tenant of his farm. He would then have no rent to pay, and he could not be turned out of his own farm. In 1903 an act was passed to enable Irishmen to buy their farms. The British Government would lend them the money, and they would pay it back over a number of years. This really settled the land question.

Home Rule. The Irish did not forget that they had once had a separate Parliament, and throughout the nineteenth century they wanted it again. They held meetings; they formed societies; in 1848 they raised a rebellion. Some of the Irish wanted to break away from Great Britain and form an Irish republic; all (except those in the north) wanted what was called Home Rule, a separate Irish Parliament in Dublin. When Gladstone was Prime Minister he twice proposed a Home Rule Bill in Parliament. The first Bill was defeated in the House of Commons, the second

in the House of Lords. It was not until 1914 that a Home Rule Bill became law.

Many of the people of Ulster, in the north of Ireland, were Protestants, and they did not want to be ruled by a Parliament



IRELAND

at Dublin which would certainly contain more Roman Catholics than Protestants. In 1914 many of the men of Ulster prepared to rebel rather than submit to an Irish Parliament. In August, 1914, the European War broke out, and it was agreed that though the Home Rule Bill had just been passed no Irish Parliament should be set up until after the war.

Sinn Fein. To the mass of the Irish this was a terrible disappointment. They had waited all their lives for their own Parliament, and when they thought they were at last to have it the whole matter was postponed again. A new society, Sinn Fein, was formed; it aimed at setting up an Irish republic separate from

Great Britain. At Easter, 1916, there was a Sinn Fein rebellion in Dublin in which many people lost their lives, and though the rebellion was put down it was necessary to keep a force of British troops in Ireland till the end of the war and for some time afterwards.

The Irish Free State. Sinn Fein carried on a desperate struggle against the British, and the British Government sent a force known as the Black and Tans (from the colour of their uniforms) to Ireland to fight the Sinn Feiners. There was a good deal of brutal fighting on both sides, and it became clear that Sinn Fein could not be put down in this way. In 1921 Ireland was divided into two parts; the greater part of the island was to form the Irish Free State, and certain counties of Ulster were to become Northern Ireland. There was to be a Parliament in each part. It was arranged that some harbours in the south of Ireland were to continue to be used by the British navy, although they were in the Irish Free State.

Many of the Sinn Feiners did not like this settlement, as the Irish Free State remained a part of the British Empire. They wanted Ireland to be a republic, and for some time they continued to fight against the Free State Government.

Eire. In 1937 the Government of the Irish Free State declared that the Free State was an independent republic and that it would be known henceforth as Eire. The Government of Eire wished to obtain full possession of the naval ports on the south coast, and to please the Irish the British Government gave up its right to use them. The result of this action was seen in the war with Germany which began in 1939. Eire remained neutral in the war and would not let the ports be used by ships of the British navy. If these ports had been available to the British cruisers and destroyers which were engaged in fighting German submarines their work against the enemy would have been more effective. It is not too much to state that the loss of these ports caused the death of thousands of British seamen.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Make a list of six of the laws against Roman Catholics in Ireland in the eighteenth century.
2. In what ways was the British Parliament more powerful than the Irish Parliament in the eighteenth century?
3. Who was Wolfe Tone, and what did he do?
4. In what ways were Irish peasants badly treated by land agents in the nineteenth century?
5. What did the following men do for Ireland: (*a*) William Pitt, (*b*) Sir Robert Peel, (*c*) William Gladstone?
6. Write four or five lines on each of the following: (*a*) the Irish famine, (*b*) Eire, (*c*) Ulster, (*d*) Sinn Fein.

CHAPTER 19

GREAT BRITAIN AND THE UNITED STATES

American Independence. The American colonies declared themselves to be independent of Great Britain in 1776, and Great Britain agreed to this in 1783, after the war. Some people thought that the colonies would become a kingdom and choose a king. Perhaps the Young Pretender, Charles Edward, hoped that he might be chosen. It is possible that George Washington might have become King of the United States if he had wished, but he refused even to consider it. The Americans did not choose a king but declared their country to be a republic. In 1789 Washington became its first President, and no better man could have been chosen.

Trade with Great Britain. It was not to be expected that the United States and Great Britain would be very friendly, as they had just fought a long war. But trade began again after the war, and before long there was much more trade between the two countries than had been carried on in colonial times. Cotton was now being grown by the slaves in the southern states, and every year a great amount of cotton was sent to Lancashire, where it was made into cotton cloth by the new machines.

The War of 1812-14. During the Napoleonic War the French Emperor ordered that no nation should trade with Great Britain, and the British Government ordered that no nation should trade with France or with any country in Europe that was under Napoleon's rule. The difference between the two blockades was that one could be enforced and the other could not. Great Britain had a very large fleet, and Napoleon had not. When American ships came to Europe to trade, they were met and searched and turned back—by British warships but not by French

warships. The Americans were very angry at this, and in 1812 war broke out between Great Britain and the United States. Most of the fighting was at sea. There were no great battles between British and American fleets, but whenever single ships



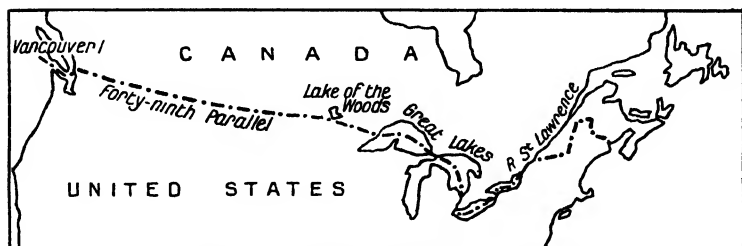
'SHANNON' V. "CHESAPEAKE'

Weaver Smith

of the two countries met they fired at each other. Sometimes the Americans won, at other times the British. The best known of these fights was that between the *Shannon* and the *Chesapeake*, in which the British frigate *Shannon* captured the American *Chesapeake* in fifteen minutes. After the fall of Napoleon in 1814 some regiments of the British army which had been fighting in Spain were sent to America, where they marched to the capital, Washington, and burned some of the public buildings. Peace was made at the end of 1814.

The Canadian Boundary. Canada was a British colony, and during the next few years it was arranged that a line on the forty-

ninth parallel, running from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains, should be the boundary between the two countries. It was also agreed that neither country should keep warships on the Great Lakes, and the boundary line on land was left undefended. From that time till to-day there has not been a single fort or a single gun on either side of this line. Each country trusts



CANADA-UNITED STATES BOUNDARY

the other not to attack it, and neither has the slightest fear of the other. When countries in other parts of the world learn to act in this way there will be no further danger of wars breaking out.

The American Civil War. From 1861 to 1865 a civil war was fought in America between the northern states and the southern states. The southern states wanted to break away from the United States and form a separate republic, and Abraham Lincoln, who was President at this time, wished to prevent this. The states of the south were slave states, while there was no slavery in the north. After four years of war the southern states were defeated and were forced to remain in the United States, and the slaves were set free.

The Lancashire Cotton Famine. During the war the southern states were unable to do much trade with other countries because their ports were blockaded by northern warships. Cotton could not be sent to England, and for some years there was a cotton famine in Lancashire. Many factories closed; their workpeople were unemployed, and some of them found work in other parts

of the country. After the civil war supplies of cotton came again from America, but Lancashire factory owners found that it was unwise to obtain all the cotton they needed from one country. Since that time cotton has been grown in India, Egypt, East and West Africa, and other lands, and if the crop fails in one place supplies of cotton can be obtained elsewhere.

The "Alabama." Before the civil war started, a warship was built at Birkenhead for the southern states. It was still in England when news came of the outbreak of war, and it became the duty of the British Government to keep the ship until the war was over. The warship, the *Alabama*, put to sea before an order to stop it reached Birkenhead. During the next year or two the *Alabama* attacked several northern merchant ships in the Atlantic, until at length it was caught by northern warships and sunk. After the war was over the American Government claimed that, if the British Government had prevented the *Alabama* from sailing, American ships would not have been sunk, and that Great Britain ought to pay for the damage done by the vessel. The British Government did not agree, but neither country wanted to go to war about it. After some years they agreed that the matter should be settled by a court at Geneva. Both sides stated their case. The United States claimed the sum of nine and a half million pounds; the court ordered that Great Britain should pay three and a quarter million pounds. The British people were disappointed with the result, but it was much better than going to war. A war would have cost much more than three and a quarter millions, many thousands of lives would have been lost, and though the war would have shown which country was stronger it would not have settled which was in the right.

The Venezuelan Boundary Question. In 1895 there was a dispute between Great Britain and the South American republic of Venezuela about the boundary between Venezuela and the colony of British Guiana. The President of the United States, Grover Cleveland, took the side of Venezuela, and for a few days there was some talk of war between Great Britain and the United States.

It was at length agreed that the boundary dispute in South America should be settled by a court, as the *Alabama* affair had been. Both Great Britain and Venezuela stated their case, and the court decided in favour of Great Britain.

Growth of the United States. During the nineteenth century the United States grew much larger. It spread across North America to the Pacific; by the end of the century there were forty-five states, and by 1910 there were forty-eight, instead of the original thirteen. Many millions of people had left Europe to live in the United States, among them being many Irishmen. These Irish people had left their country because they hated British rule in Ireland or because they had been turned off their farms by British land agents. They hated the British, and in America they did their best to keep the people unfriendly with Great Britain.

The United States and the Wars of the Twentieth Century. The two countries have become more friendly in the twentieth century. Several of the Presidents, including Theodore Roosevelt, Woodrow Wilson, and especially Franklin Roosevelt, have been friendly towards Great Britain.

The United States took part in both the great wars against Germany. The Americans did not come into the European War of 1914-18 until 1917, and they did not take a great part in the fighting, though if the war had lasted longer they would have done more.

In the World War of 1939-45 they did much more. Their great President, Franklin Roosevelt, knew that if the Germans overcame Great Britain they would in time attack the United States. Before his country was ready to enter the war he helped Great Britain by giving fifty destroyers from the American navy to the British navy in return for permission to use naval and air bases on Newfoundland, Bermuda, and certain islands in the West Indies, and he established the system of Lease-Lend, by which the United States supplied this country with food and many things needed for the war, without any agreement as to payment. In

December, 1941, the United States entered the war, and it was General Eisenhower, an American general, who commanded the armies of the United States, Great Britain, and France, which in the end conquered Germany.

Anglo-American Friendship. To-day, the United States and Great Britain are more friendly than they have been at any previous time since the American colonies became independent. In 1946 the Government of the United States agreed to lend a large sum of money to Great Britain to assist in restoring the trade of this country after the war. This loan proved to be insufficient for the purpose, and in 1948 and the following years Great Britain (and other countries which had suffered from the war) received from the United States gifts of merchandise of very great value. These gifts were known as Marshall Aid, since they were proposed by Mr. Marshall, the American Secretary of State.

It is to be hoped that the friendship between Great Britain and the United States will continue and grow closer in the years to come.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. In what way is the boundary between Canada and the United States different from the boundaries between other countries?
2. What was the cause of the war of 1812-14? Mention one important event of the war (*a*) on land, and (*b*) at sea.
3. What was (*a*) the chief cause, and (*b*) the chief result, of the American Civil War?
4. What was the Lancashire cotton famine, and what caused it?
5. What was done by the United States in (*a*) the European War of 1914-18, and (*b*) the World War of 1939-45?

CHAPTER 20

EXPLORATION

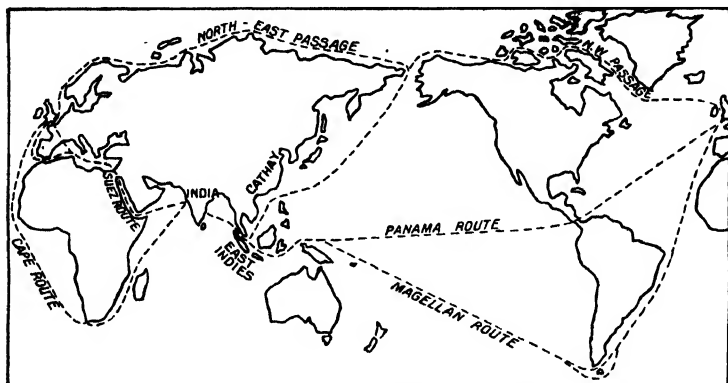
No Exploration till Modern Times. It is not known how many years have passed since the first men lived on the earth; it may be as much as half a million years ago that men first appeared. Nearly all of this long time is prehistoric—the time before written history began. Historic times have covered only three or four thousand years. Even during most of this period men knew very little about the world in which they lived. Europe was known, and so were some parts of Asia and the north of Africa. The rest of the world was unknown. It is only in the last five hundred years that men have explored the world by travelling into unknown parts in order to find out more about them, and much of the exploring has taken place in the past two hundred years.

The New World. At the end of the fifteenth century Columbus discovered the New World, and in after years Spanish and French and English adventurers explored it; they travelled along the coasts and made maps, and they found their way up the great rivers and crossed the mountains and plains until the interior of America became well known. Balboa in 1513 crossed the Isthmus of Darien (or Panama) and saw the Pacific Ocean, though of course he did not know how large it was; he probably thought it was a large lake in Asia.

The Cape Route to India. Also at the end of the fifteenth century the Portuguese sailed round the Cape of Good Hope and reached India by sea. Until then, nobody knew how far Africa extended to the south or whether it was possible to sail round it at all.

Portuguese sailors and merchants explored the south and east coasts of Asia, but they did not go far into the interior of that continent, much of which remained unknown until the nineteenth

century. Jesuit missionaries reached Japan and tried to convert the Japanese to the Christian religion, but only in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries have explorers entered Tibet and central Asia, and some parts of Asia are even now not well known.

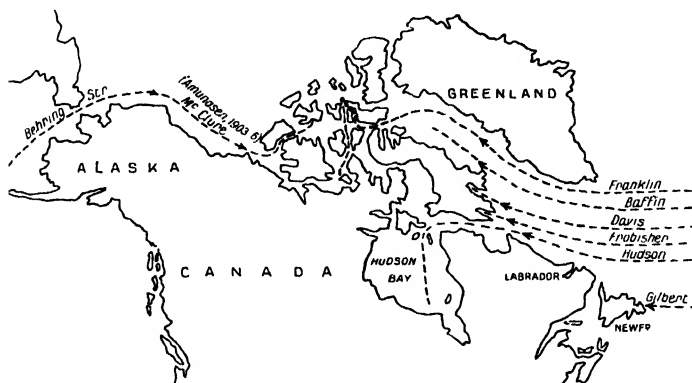


ROUTES TO INDIA AND CATHAY

The Globe. From the work of Spanish and Portuguese sailors it became certain that the world was a globe, and in 1519-21 Magellan's ship sailed round it. The next man to undertake this voyage was an Englishman, Sir Francis Drake, in 1577-80, and in 1586-8 another Englishman, Thomas Cavendish, sailed round the world. But though its shape was now known men did not know how large it was.

The North-West and North-East Passages. It was thought that a way to India and Cathay (China), safe and easy and not too long, might be found round the north of North America. Sir Humphrey Gilbert wrote a book to prove that this North-West passage existed, and Martin Frobisher, John Davis, Henry Hudson, William Baffin, and others tried without success to find it. An attempt by Sir Hugh Willoughby and Richard Chancellor to reach the East by a North-East passage—round the north of Europe and Asia—also failed.

Australia and the Pacific. Australia was discovered in the seventeenth century. The first man to sight it, though he did not land on it, was a Spanish captain, Luis de Torres, who sailed through Torres Strait, between Australia and New Guinea, in



NORTH-WEST PASSAGE

1606. But the chief discoverer of Australia was a Dutch captain, Abel Tasman. The governor of the Dutch East Indies (on the islands which lie to the south-east of Asia) was Anthony Van Diemen, and he sent Tasman to find out whether there really was a great continent to the south. Tasman sailed to Mauritius, off the east coast of Africa, and then he turned east. He reached the island of Tasmania, which is now named after him, though he called it Van Diemen's Land in honour of the governor. Sailing on, he reached the north-west corner of New Zealand, and to a cape which he sighted he gave the name of Cape Maria Van Diemen, after the governor's daughter, whom he hoped to marry. He went on into the Pacific and discovered the Fiji Islands and then returned to the Dutch East Indies after sailing many thousands of miles. His voyage had proved that Australia existed and that it did not extend to the South Pole. In a later voyage Tasman explored the north and west coasts of Australia.

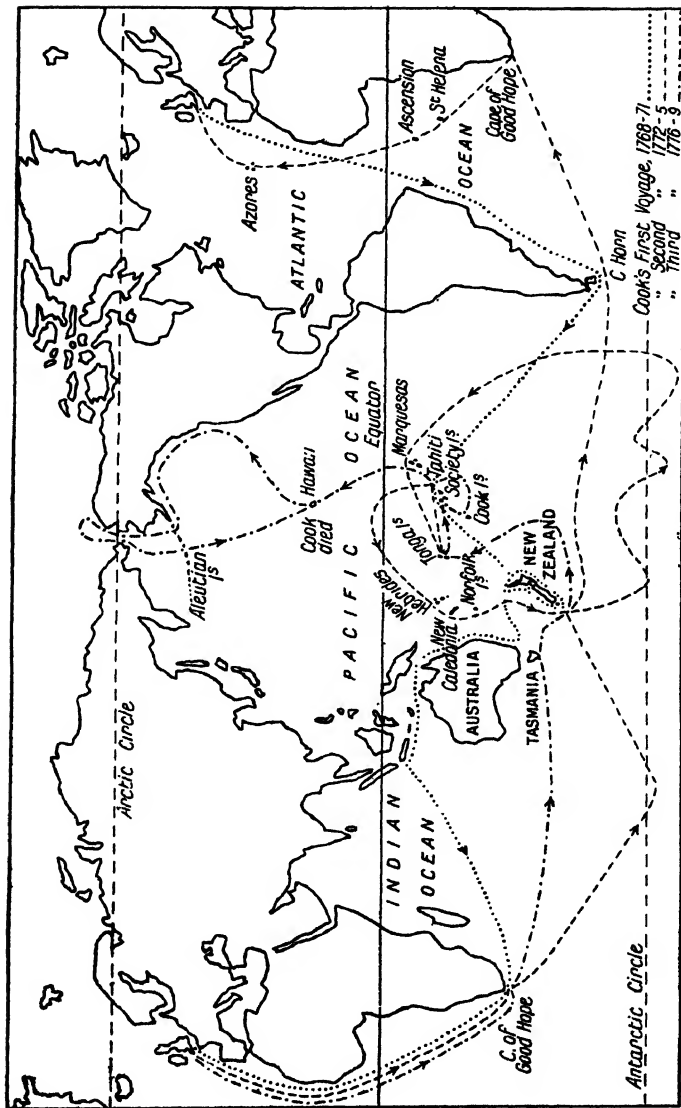
In 1688, and again in 1699, Australia and New Zealand were

visited by William Dampier, an Englishman who had been a buccaneer and was now an officer in the King's navy. He sailed along the north and west coasts of Australia and the coast of New Guinea.

Captain Cook. Many French and British expeditions were sent to the Pacific in the eighteenth century. The most important of these were the three voyages of Captain James Cook. Cook had joined the navy as a boy and had risen to the command of a King's ship. In 1768 he sailed in the *Endeavour* with a party of men of science, among whom was Joseph Banks, to the Pacific by way of Cape Horn. The *Endeavour* stayed for some weeks at the island of Tahiti to enable the scientists to observe a transit of Venus. (When the planet Venus passes across the face of the sun this is known as a transit; it happens very rarely, but it occurred in June, 1769, and it could be seen from Tahiti.) The natives on the island were very friendly with the visitors and supplied them with fruit, and when the ship left Tahiti one of the natives went in her as a servant to Banks.

Cook discovered several groups of islands, and he sailed round New Zealand, making a good map of the coast. He then explored and mapped the east coast of Australia, which had not yet been visited. Thinking it was like the coast of South Wales, he named it New South Wales. (The name was applied by him to the whole east coast of Australia and not merely to the part which is called New South Wales at the present day.) Banks was pleased with the appearance of the land; he was very much interested in the strange trees and plants to be seen there, and he gave to one part the name of Botany Bay. Both Cook and Banks thought that Botany Bay would be a very good place for a new colony.

The *Endeavour* struck on the Great Barrier Reef and was almost a total wreck, but Cook and his men got her off and repaired her. They reached England in 1771, returning by way of the Cape of Good Hope. They had sailed round the world, but thirty out of eighty-five men of the crew had died from scurvy, a disease which commonly attacked sailors through lack of fresh food.



VOYAGES OF CAPTAIN COOK

In 1772 Cook, in command of the *Resolution*, returned to the Pacific, reaching it by way of the Cape of Good Hope. His aim this time was to find out if there was a great southern continent stretching to the South Pole. Many people thought that this



THE GREAT BARRIER REEF

Australian Government

continent existed and that it was as big as Europe and Asia together and that its discovery would be as important as the finding of America by Columbus. Cook sailed very far to the south, a long way within the Antarctic Circle, and he proved that though there was land round the South Pole it was covered with snow and ice and that no great southern continent existed. On this voyage his men were supplied with better food and with lemon water, and only one man out of a crew of one hundred and eighteen died of scurvy. He returned to England by way of Cape Horn in 1775, again having been away for three years. For the second time he had sailed round the world, this time from west to east.

Cook's third and last voyage, also in the *Resolution*, began in 1776. This time he sailed into the North Pacific to try to discover the North-West passage from the western side of North America. He discovered the Sandwich Islands (Hawaii), and sailed north through Behring Straits. Unable to force his way through the ice, he returned to Hawaii in 1779, intending to try again in the next year. At Hawaii some of the natives visited Cook's ship and stole various articles. One man was caught and flogged, but in spite of this other natives stole one of the ship's boats. Cook went ashore to see the native chief, and was attacked by an excited crowd. He was struck on the head with a club, and as he lay on the ground he was stabbed with a knife. He rose to his feet but fell into the water. He struggled to land, where further blows with clubs and knives killed him. Another boat from his ship lay a short distance off shore, in charge of an officer who was too cowardly to go to the rescue of his captain!

Captain Cook was one of the greatest of British explorers. He mapped New Zealand and Eastern Australia, he discovered many of the Pacific Islands, he sailed within both the Arctic and Antarctic Circles, and twice he sailed round the world. He added more to men's knowledge of the world than any other explorer since Columbus, and he was the first captain to save his men from scurvy.

Other Explorers of Australia. In 1788, less than ten years after Cook's death, a settlement for convicts was begun, not at Botany Bay, as Joseph Banks (now Sir Joseph Banks) proposed, but at Port Jackson, a few miles farther north, where the city of Sydney now stands. The coasts of Australia were fully explored by Flinders and Bass and other men. Bass sailed through Bass Strait and proved that Tasmania was an island; Flinders in 1801-3 sailed round Australia in the *Investigator*, a ship so old and leaky that it is a miracle she did not sink.

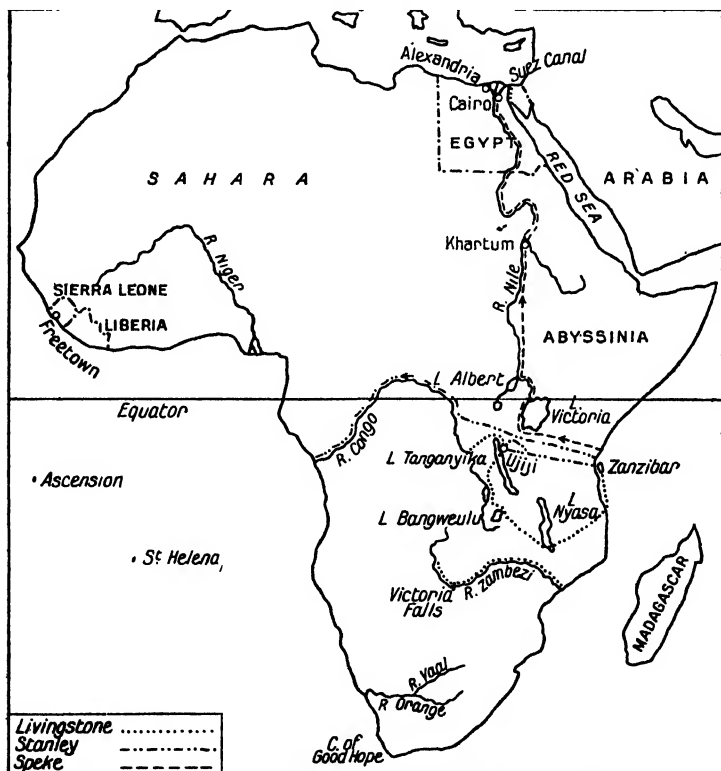
At the beginning of the nineteenth century nothing was known of the inland parts of Australia, and when the Blue Mountains were crossed it was found that rivers were flowing towards the interior of the continent. It was thought that they must flow



Weaver Smith

THE DEATH OF CAPTAIN COOK

into a large inland sea, but at length it was discovered that they either dried up in sandy deserts or turned and made their way to the open sea. During the nineteenth century many explorers crossed Australia, and the continent became fairly well known.



EXPLORERS IN AFRICA

Africa. Until the middle of the nineteenth century less was known of Africa than of other continents, and it was often called the Dark Continent. Much of it was desert, and much more was tropical forest. There were four great rivers, but little was known of them; the Nile flowed into the Mediterranean, the



Imperial Airways
THE VICTORIA FALLS ON THE ZAMBESI

Zambesi into the Indian Ocean, and the Niger and the Congo into the Atlantic Ocean. It was felt that if these rivers could be traced back to their source much would be learned about the interior of Africa.



E.N.A.

THE STANLEY RAPIDS AND FALLS ON THE CONGO

The course of the Niger was traced by Mungo Park and other explorers early in the nineteenth century, and they were followed by missionaries and traders. The branches of the delta of the Niger were known as the Oil Rivers, and in the last quarter of the nineteenth century the region was ruled by the Royal Niger Company. It was taken over by the British Government in 1899 and now forms the colony of Nigeria.

The greatest of the African explorers was a Scottish missionary, David Livingstone, who followed the course of the Zambesi; he discovered the Victoria Falls on that river, and he also discovered Lakes Nyasa and Tanganyika. Livingstone made several



Weaver Smith

THE MEETING OF STANLEY AND LIVINGSTONE

journeys before his death in 1873. On one of these journeys he was absent so long that a relief expedition under Henry Stanley was sent to Africa to find him. Stanley met Livingstone, and himself became a great explorer. He crossed Africa from east to west and followed the Congo to its mouth.

The upper courses of the Nile were traced by Richard Burton and John Speke. It is through the work of all these and other explorers that Africa is no longer the Dark Continent.

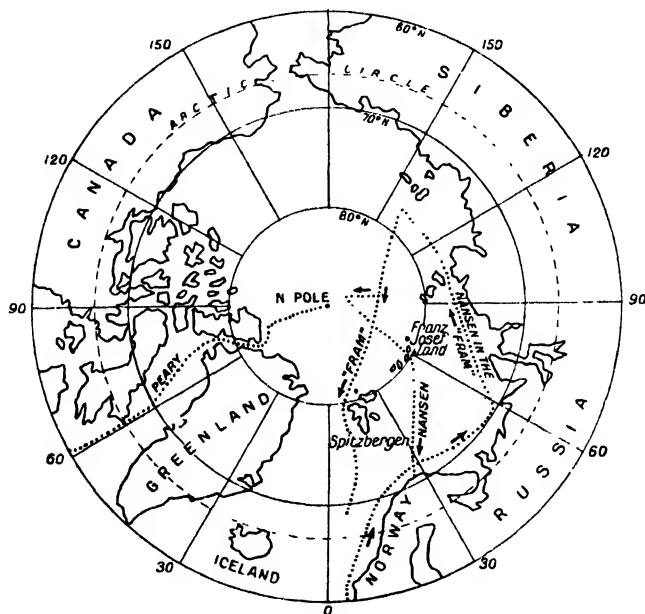
The North-West Passage. Another great attempt to discover a North-West passage was made in the years 1845-7. The British Government arranged the expedition, and Sir John Franklin asked to be allowed to lead it, as he had already done some exploring in Arctic regions. He was told that, as he was sixty years of age, he was too old. "I am only fifty-nine," he replied, and he was given the command. With his two ships, *Erebus* and *Terror*, he set out, and he never returned. No fewer than forty relief expeditions were sent out during the next ten years to try to find out what had happened to him, and it was not until 1859 that Sir Leopold McClintock, a British admiral, found the place where Franklin and his men had died. From the papers that McClintock found it was proved that Franklin had discovered the North-West passage (the sea-route round the north of America), though it was blocked with ice. Captain Robert McClure, in command of one of the relief expeditions, discovered the passage from the west in 1850, four years after Franklin.

Between 1903 and 1906 a Norwegian explorer, Roald Amundsen, went through the North-West passage in a tiny ship, the *Gjøa*, of forty-seven tons, with a crew of six men.

The North Pole. By the middle of the nineteenth century most of the earth's surface was known, but neither the north pole nor the south pole had been reached. During the last hundred years many explorers have tried to journey to the poles.

Nansen, a native of Norway, who in 1888-9 crossed Greenland from east to west and spent the winter in that land, tried in 1893 to reach the north pole in the *Fram*, a ship built very strongly to

withstand crushing by the ice. He did not intend to force the *Fram* through the ice of the Arctic Ocean, but he believed that this ice drifted slowly across the pole; if his ship could become wedged in the ice at the right place it would be carried across the

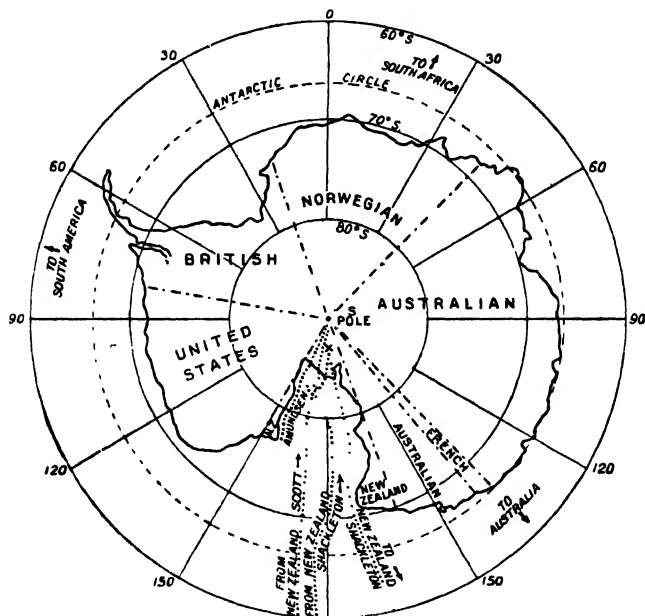


NORTH POLAR REGIONS

pole with the ice-field. His idea was sound, and though the *Fram* did not actually reach the pole it approached it more closely than any previous ship had done. The north pole was first reached by Peary, an American, in 1909.

With the invention of the aeroplane it was possible to reach the pole without having to force a way through masses of ice, and in 1925 Amundsen tried three times to reach it by air; he did not succeed, though he approached it very closely. In 1926 Byrd, an American, flew across the pole in an aeroplane, and Amundsen,

with Nobile, an Italian, did so in an airship; both returned without having landed. Nobile went again in 1928, but his airship crashed. Amundsen went in an aeroplane to rescue him, but he, too, was lost.



SOUTH POLAR REGIONS

The South Pole. Several attempts to reach the south pole have been made in the twentieth century. There is land, covered with snow and ice, at the south pole, and it is necessary to make the last part of the journey by sledge or on foot. Captain Robert Scott made an attempt in 1904, and five years later Sir Ernest Shackleton reached within a hundred miles of the pole.

Scott's last expedition set out in 1910 in the *Nova Terra*. In November, 1911, Scott with four companions left the ship and

began the overland journey with sledges. At certain places they left stores of provisions for use on the return journey. They reached the south pole on 18th January, 1912, only to find that Amundsen, travelling by another route, had reached it a



Forman

'A VERY GALLANT GENTLEMAN''

month earlier. (Amundsen is not the only man who has reached both poles; Byrd has flown over both.) Scott and his companions began to return at once. The cold was terrible; icy storms blew every day; food ran short until they reached the stores they had left; and they were ill. One of the party, Petty Officer Evans, died, and the others struggled on. Another of the party, Captain Lawrence Oates, suffered from frost-bitten feet and asked the others to leave him. Of course they refused to do so, and he moved on with them, but slowly, for one more day. That night they put up their tent as usual, and slept, and early next morning (17th March, 1912) Oates got up and said, "I am just going outside and may be some time." The storm outside was worse than ever. Oates never returned; he did not intend to do so. He wandered out to die, hoping that without him his companions

could move faster to safety, and he was never seen again. He was "a very gallant gentleman."

Scott and his two remaining friends struggled on for twelve days longer and then died. In November, 1912, a relief expedition found their bodies. The story of Captain Oates was found in Scott's diary, and Scott's last words were, "We shall stick it to the end." They did.

Mount Everest. For many years attempts have been made by experienced mountaineers to scale this, the highest mountain in the world. Success was not attained until May, 1953, when the summit was reached by members of an expedition led by Colonel John Hunt, an Englishman, Edmund Hillary, a New Zealander, and Sherpa Tensing, a Nepalese. Hunt and Hillary, who were afterwards knighted, acknowledged the advantage they had received from the experience gained by earlier and less successful climbers. Though the glory of the conquest of Everest rests with these men and their assistants, the efforts of earlier mountaineers should not be forgotten and are, indeed, worthy of praise.

Knowledge of the World To-day. No man in the future will, like Columbus, discover a new continent, or, like Balboa, look upon a new ocean. Nearly every part of the earth's surface has been visited. Parts of Asia, Africa, and South America need to be explored more fully than has been done so far, but the main work of exploration is complete. The whole of the earth's surface has been mapped. That this has been possible has been due to the brave men whose deeds have been noticed in this chapter.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Mention four or five voyages round the world. Which way was taken round the world?
2. Tell the story of the North-West passage.
3. What was discovered by Captain Cook on each of his three voyages?
4. Write a short account of Scott's expedition in 1911-12.

CHAPTER 21

KINGS AND QUEENS OF THE P1

George I	1714-27
George II	1727-60
George III	1760-1820
George IV	1820-30
William IV	1830-7
Victoria	1837-1901
Edward VII	1901-10
George V	1910-36
Edward VIII	1936
George VI	1936-52
Elizabeth II	1952-

The Kings and Queens. Eleven sovereigns—nine kings and two queens—have sat upon the throne of Great Britain since George I became King in 1714. The first five of them, from George I to William IV, were not very good kings; except George III, they were not good men; and, except George III, none was really liked by the people. It is often thought that if there had been any more kings as bad as these the British people would have got rid of their kings and established a republic.

The other six sovereigns, from Victoria to Elizabeth II, have been very different. They have done their best for their people and have been very popular, and though in the twentieth century republics have been set up in many other countries the people of Great Britain have no wish to lose their kings and queens.

George III. George III was King of Great Britain for sixty years. He was the grandson of George II, and he was in every way the best of the four Georges who reigned from 1714 to 1830. George I and George II were Germans; they were rulers of a little German state called Hanover, which they often visited; they had

been born in Germany; they had German ways of life, and they spoke the German language; George I could not speak English at all and George II could not speak it well; and both of them cared much more for Hanover than for Great Britain. But George III was born and brought up in England, and when he became King he said that he gloried in the name of Briton. Though he, too, was Elector, or ruler, of Hanover, he did not care about Hanover, and he never visited it at any time in his long life. Though he was not a wise king he was a good man—a very much better man than the two kings who reigned before him or than his sons who followed him.

Since the first two Georges had thought more of Hanover than of Great Britain they had left the ruling of this country to their ministers, who were members of the Whig party. George III wanted to rule the country himself, and he did not like the Whigs. As soon as he could he got rid of his Whig ministers and appointed Tory ministers in their place, because the Tories were more likely than the Whigs to do as he wished. Whigs ruled Great Britain in the time of the first two Georges; during nearly the whole of the reigns of George III and George IV the country was under Tory rule.

In the reign of George III there were great changes in town and country life. Until this time the people in the villages made woollen cloth; they did the spinning and weaving by hand in their own homes whenever they were not busy in the fields. In the reign of George III machines for spinning and weaving were invented, and many of the workers moved into the towns and worked in the factories. More goods could be made by machines than by hand, and much of what was made was sold in other countries, so that in course of time England became "the workshop of the world." In the country better ways of tilling the ground were thought out. Much better roads were made at this time, and it was in the reign of George III that most of the canals in Great Britain were cut.

There were bad events as well as good during the reign. It was while George III was King that thirteen British colonies in North America rebelled against British rule. A war took place

which the Americans won. They became free from Great Britain and called their country the United States of America.

The French Revolution took place about half-way through the reign of George III. It was followed by a war between Great Britain and France which lasted nine years and in which neither side beat the other. A great general, Napoleon Bonaparte, became Emperor of the French, and a second war between the two countries followed. It did not end until Napoleon was defeated at the Battle of Waterloo. Except for a pause of about a year and another of a few months, Great Britain was at war with France for over twenty-two years. Since that time there has been no war between the two countries.

George III suffered several short attacks of madness as he grew older. During the last nine years of his life he was entirely mad and was blind, and the Prince of Wales was regent for his father. The old King was popular throughout his reign; though he made many mistakes his people knew that he was a good man who meant well and tried to do his duty as King.

George IV. George IV was King for only ten years. People who wished to flatter him called him "the first gentleman in Europe," but he was not a good man and not a good king, and nobody was sorry when he died.

William IV. William IV was the fourth son of George III. When he was young he served for some years in the navy, where he was known among the sailors as "Drunken Billy." As he had three elder brothers he had not expected to become King, but his brothers died before him, leaving no children to succeed to the throne. Though he was too fond of drinking he was not so bad a man as his brother, George IV. He was King for only seven years, and he, too, left no children to follow him on the throne.

Victoria. Victoria was the daughter of the Duke of Kent, the fifth son of George III, and she was only eighteen years old when she became Queen. In 1840 she married her cousin, Prince Albert, a German, and they had nine children. For many years

the Prince was not very popular, but the people liked him better when they learned to know him better. He was a good man, and his death in 1861 was a great grief to the nation as well as to the Queen.



Weaver Smith

THE YOUNG QUEEN VICTORIA

Victoria's reign of nearly sixty-four years was the longest in British history. Although she became Queen in 1837 she lived till after the beginning of the twentieth century. Much happened during this long and peaceful reign; England became much richer, and the common people were very much better off at the end than

at the beginning. The Queen, unlike the kings before her, set an example of good life to the nation. She was loved by the people, and in 1887, when she had reigned fifty years, her Jubilee was



Weaver Smith

QUEEN VICTORIA IN LATER LIFE

celebrated all over the country. In 1897, when she had been on the throne for sixty years, a Diamond Jubilee was held. People from all parts of the British Empire came to London to take part in the rejoicings at both these Jubilees.

Edward VII. Edward VII, the eldest son of Queen Victoria, was nearly sixty years old when he became King, and he reigned for only nine years. Edward was a good sportsman, fond of yachting and horse-racing; while he was Prince of Wales one of his horses won the Derby. He was well known and popular in France as well as in his own country, and it was in his reign that the close friendship between Great Britain and France was begun. Though the two countries had not been at war with each other since the Battle of Waterloo they had not been really friendly during the nineteenth century. Edward VII, who has been called Edward the Peacemaker, helped to bring about their friendship in the twentieth century.

George V. It was in the reign of George V that the war of 1914-18 against Germany was fought and won. The war left the country much poorer than it had been, but in the following years it recovered steadily. King George was very much beloved, and there were great rejoicings in Great Britain and throughout the British Empire at the Silver Jubilee in 1935, when he had been King for twenty-five years. But his health was not good; more than once during his reign he was very ill, and early in 1936 he died.

Edward VIII. As Prince of Wales Edward VIII had been very popular, and it was expected that he would have a long and brilliant reign. He was King for less than a year. He became King upon his father's death in January, 1936, and before the end of the year he abdicated, being known henceforth as Duke of Windsor.

George VI. George VI was the second son of George V, and he became King when his brother decided to retire. During his reign Great Britain had to fight against Germany in another great war which left the country in a far worse condition than after the earlier war.

George VI and his Queen frequently travelled to all parts of the country and mixed with the people, to whom they were well known and with whom they were extremely popular. The King's death in February, 1952, caused deep and widespread sorrow.

Elizabeth II. When Queen Elizabeth ascended the throne she was already married to the Duke of Edinburgh. She has two children, Prince Charles, who is Duke of Cornwall and heir to the throne, and Princess Anne. She is keenly interested in the welfare of her people, and her coronation in June, 1953, was the occasion of rejoicings in Great Britain and throughout the Commonwealth and Empire.

In the reign of Elizabeth I England made great progress at home and on the seas. It is hoped that the second Elizabethan Age will prove to be a time of even more remarkable advance than that of the great Tudor Queen.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. In what ways have the sovereigns of Great Britain since 1837 been different from the kings of the House of Hanover?

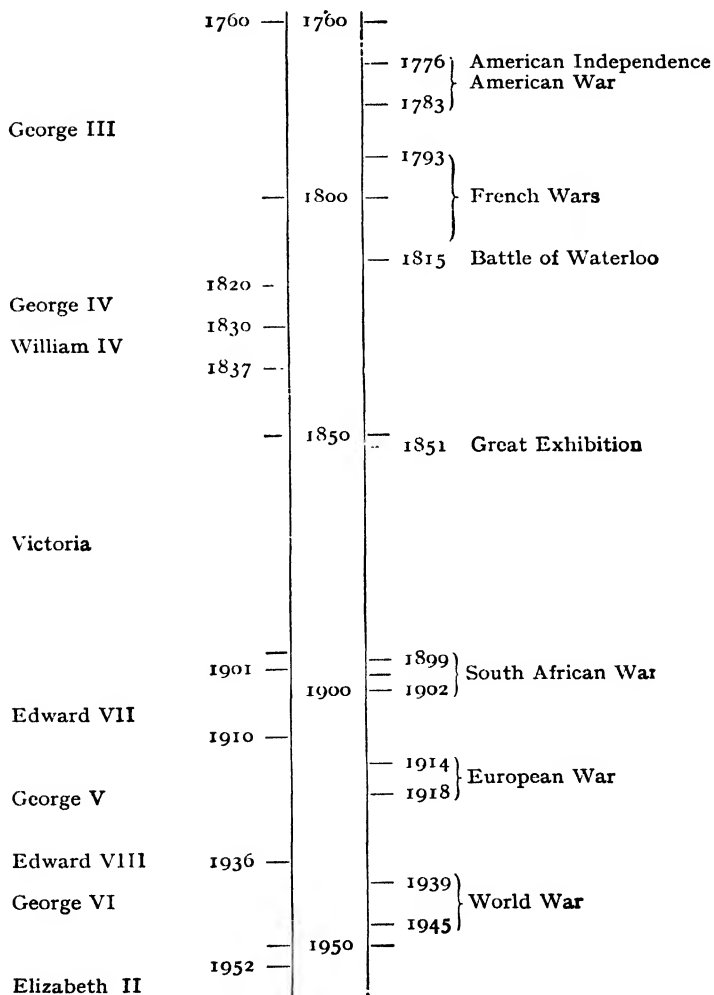
2. Mention four or five important things which happened in the reign of George III.

3. Mention one interesting thing about each of the sovereigns of Great Britain from George III to George VI.

4. Write three or four lines about each of the following: (a) an Elector, (b) the Derby, (c) the workshop of the world, (d) a Jubilee.

TIME CHART

KINGS AND QUEENS OF GREAT BRITAIN SINCE 1760



CHAPTER 22

THE CENTURY OF PEACE IN EUROPE

The Nineteenth Century. The Napoleonic Wars ended in 1815, and no great war in which all the great powers of Europe took part occurred before 1914. There were several wars in the nineteenth century, such as the Crimean War, the Six Weeks War, and the Franco-Prussian War, but they were short wars, and in each of them only two or three countries were engaged. The period from 1815 to 1914 was in the main a century of peace.

The Congress of Vienna. In 1815 there was a Congress (a meeting of kings and statesmen) at Vienna, to settle the affairs of Europe. It made a number of changes in the boundaries of the countries of Europe, and it restored the kings who had been dethroned by Napoleon. Neither Germany nor Italy became a single united state; Germany after 1815 was a Confederation of thirty-nine states under the leadership of Austria, and Italy contained about ten small states.

Putting down Rebellions. Most of the Kings and statesmen at Vienna wanted Europe to remain peaceful. The twenty years of warfare that had just ended had followed the French Revolution, and they thought that if a revolution should happen in any country war would very likely follow. Therefore, in order to keep the peace, they thought that revolutions must be prevented. If a rising occurred anywhere in Europe they thought they had a right to send their troops to put it down.

Great Britain did not agree with this. British statesmen thought that every country should settle its own affairs and that others had no right to interfere with it. There were risings in several parts of Europe—in Spain, Portugal, and Italy—in the first ten years after the Congress of Vienna. These were put

down by Austrian and French troops, and Great Britain did not interfere.

The Spanish colonies in America had revolted against Spain, and Russia and Austria thought of sending armies across the Atlantic to overcome them. This time Great Britain did interfere—on the side of the Spanish colonies. Canning, the Foreign Secretary of Great Britain, declared that the British fleet would oppose any army that was sent across the Atlantic. No army was sent, and the Spanish colonies became independent republics in South America and Central America.

Greek Independence. Greece was part of the Turkish Empire, and in 1821 the Greeks rebelled against the Turks. The Greeks were Christians and the Turks Mohammedans, and many people hoped that the Greeks would gain their freedom. Many Englishmen went out to help the Greeks; one of them was Lord Byron, who died in Greece of fever in 1824. Austria wanted to help the Turks crush the revolt, but the Tsar of Russia sent an army against the Turks because the Greeks were Christians. Great Britain did not want to fight, but a British fleet was sent to Turkish waters, though the admiral was ordered not to take part in the fighting. A Turkish fleet was anchored in the Bay of Navarino, and when the British ships approached the bay a shot was fired at them. They returned the fire; a battle took place, and the Turkish ships were sunk. Soon afterwards Greece became free, and a kingdom of Greece was established.

France. At the fall of Napoleon France became a kingdom again, with Louis XVIII, the brother of Louis XVI, as King. He had been in exile for many years, and now that he was on the throne of France he, like Charles II of England, did not want "to go upon his travels again." He was not a bad ruler, and the people did not revolt against him. He died in 1824 and was succeeded by his brother, Charles X, who foolishly tried to rule as the kings before the French Revolution had ruled. Six years later, in 1830, the people of Paris rose against him, and he was forced to go into exile.

His cousin, Louis Philippe, became King in his place, and he reigned till 1848. He was chosen because the people thought he was in sympathy with them. He would walk about Paris without guards, like an ordinary citizen, and he sent his children to the public schools. But he did nothing for the common people, and in time he became unpopular. There was a Parliament, called the Chamber of Deputies, in France, but the poorer people had no votes, and when they asked the King to give them the right to vote he refused. In February, 1848, there was a rising in Paris, and Louis Philippe and his wife fled to England under the names of Mr. and Mrs. Smith. He had gained the throne in one revolution and lost it in the next.

France had had enough of kings, and no king was appointed to follow Louis Philippe. (At no time since 1848 has France had a king, though, as will be shown, from 1852 to 1870 she had an Emperor.) A republic was proclaimed, and as France had become a republic during the first French Revolution this was known as the Second Republic. The President of the Second Republic was Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, a nephew of the Emperor Napoleon. Many people remembered the glory of France in Napoleon's time and forgot the misery and suffering of his wars. They thought that France might become great and glorious again under another Napoleon, and in 1852 the President was able to make himself Emperor as Napoleon III. (Napoleon II was the young son of Napoleon I, a child who never reigned.)

Napoleon III was not so great a man as his uncle. Under him many parts of Paris were rebuilt, and houses, almshouses, and hospitals were built for the poor. Railways were built, and trade increased. If Napoleon had been satisfied with these things he would have been a very good ruler. But he tried to gain glory for France and for himself in several wars, and he was not very successful. In the last of these wars, the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1, he was defeated and captured by the Prussians. He was deposed by the French, and the Third Republic was proclaimed, which lasted till 1940.

Germany. As stated above, Germany after 1815 was a Confeder-

ation of thirty-nine states under Austria. Austria was not only the most important state in the German Confederation but she was the chief state of an empire which included several countries in south-east Europe, of which the most important was Hungary. The subjects of the Austrian Empire were of many races and languages (though nearly all of them followed the Roman Catholic religion). For more than thirty years the Austrian Empire and the German Confederation were ruled by the Austrian Chancellor, Prince Metternich. His great aim was that there should be no change in the government of Austria and Germany. He thought that the Austrian Empire and the German Confederation would hold together so long as there was no change, but that if any change was made they would fall apart like a house of cards. In order to prevent changes he would not allow newspapers to print articles about the Government. Books about changes in the Government might not be published, and no books or newspapers from abroad might enter the country. In schools and universities teachers were not allowed to talk about government; if they did so they might be dismissed and imprisoned. Students were not allowed to join societies, lest they should plot against the Government. This system worked well for more than thirty years, but in 1848, when news reached Austria of the revolution in France and the flight of Louis Philippe, there were risings in several parts of the Austrian Empire. Metternich had to fly for his life, and his house in Vienna was burnt. Yet, after a good deal of fighting, the risings were put down. The Austrian Empire did not collapse at that time like a pack of cards.

While Metternich was in power there was no hope of making Germany into a single united country, but when he fled many Germans hoped that this might happen. A German Parliament met at Frankfort to talk about it. The members certainly talked a great deal about it, and they did very little else. After nearly a year they offered to make the King of Prussia Emperor of a united Germany. He refused, and the Parliament came to an end.

William I became King of Prussia, the chief state of North Germany, in 1861, and in the next year Otto von Bismarck became

his chief minister. Bismarck resolved to unite Germany under the King of Prussia. He was sure that Austria would not agree to this, and that it could be done only by making war on Austria. "German unity," he said, "would come not by speeches" [as in the Frankfort Parliament] "but by blood and iron."

The Prussian army was increased and rearmed with a new type of rifle, and when it was strong enough Bismarck made war on Austria. The war, in 1866, lasted only six weeks, and there was only one battle, the Battle of Sadowa. The Austrians were defeated, and Austria was expelled from the German Confederation. A new North German Confederation was formed, with Prussia at its head; it contained all the states of North Germany but not those of the south.

Bismarck realised that Napoleon III would not like a German Empire to be formed, and he prepared for a war with France. In the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-1 the South German states supported Prussia, and France was defeated. Paris was captured, and Bismarck took the opportunity of proclaiming a German Empire at Versailles in 1871, with the King of Prussia as German Emperor. The German Empire included the states of South Germany as well as those of the north. Germany was united at last.

Italy. The unity of Italy came about in a different way. Though there were several states in Italy the only one whose king was an Italian was Sardinia. The King of Sardinia ruled the island of Sardinia and the province of Piedmont, in the north-west of Italy. Lombardy and Venetia (the province of which Venice was the chief city) were under Austrian rule, and some smaller states were ruled by Austrian princes; the Papal States in Central Italy were ruled by the Pope; southern Italy and the island of Sicily were under the King of the Two Sicilies.

Count Cavour became Prime Minister of Sardinia in 1852, and he hoped to make the King of Sardinia King of Italy. He wanted to drive the Austrians out of Italy. He obtained a promise of help from Napoleon III, and a war occurred in 1859. The Austrians lost Lombardy, which was added to the kingdom of Sardinia,

but they retained Venetia. The smaller states were added to Sardinia in 1860, and so was the greater part of the Papal States. Garibaldi conquered Sicily and southern Italy from the King of the Two Sicilies, and these also were added to the kingdom of Sardinia, whose king took the title of King of Italy. Italy was now united except for the province of Venetia and the city of Rome. Venetia was added in 1866 and Rome in 1870.

Until then, Rome had been ruled by the Popes. When the King of Italy took possession of Rome the Pope retired into his palace, the Vatican, and refused to leave it, as a protest against Italian action in taking Rome. No Pope left the Vatican before 1929, when the quarrel between the Pope and the kingdom of Italy was settled.

German Power. By 1871 Germany and Italy were united countries, and France was a republic for the third time. France was angry at her defeat by Germany, and Bismarck feared that she might recover and undertake a war of revenge. She could not hope to do this without allies, and in order to prevent her from obtaining allies Bismarck tried to join all other European powers as allies to Germany. He made an alliance with Austria in 1879 and with Italy in 1882; the three powers formed the Triple Alliance. He formed treaties of friendship with Russia also, although that country was not in the Triple Alliance. There was thus on the continent of Europe no great power in alliance with France. Great Britain was not in alliance with any European power, and had for the most part kept out of European affairs since 1815 (though she had fought Russia in the Crimean War). Bismarck was careful to remain friendly with Great Britain, lest France should seek a British alliance.

In 1888 William II became German Emperor (or Kaiser), and in 1890 Bismarck retired. The new Kaiser refused to follow Bismarck's policy. He would not renew the treaty of friendship with Russia, and in 1895 France and Russia formed an alliance. William II was not as careful as Bismarck to retain the friendship of Great Britain, and in 1897 he began the building of a large German navy. A naval race between Great Britain and Germany

began. Great Britain built more and larger ships than Germany and built them faster, so that the British navy remained much greater than the German.



TRIPLE ALLIANCE AND TRIPLE ENTENTE

The Triple Entente. It was felt in Great Britain that the building of a German navy could be only a preparation for war, and early in the twentieth century France and Great Britain drew closer together. They did not make an alliance, but in 1904 they entered into an Entente, a treaty of friendship. There were several matters in different parts of the world on which the two countries did not agree; these were now all settled by "giving and taking," and the two countries became firm friends. Three years later a similar Entente was arranged between Great Britain and Russia.

The End of the Century of Peace. After 1907 the great countries of Europe were divided into two groups—the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy, and the Triple Entente of Great Britain, France, and Russia. On more than one occasion it seemed likely that war would break out, but it did not come till

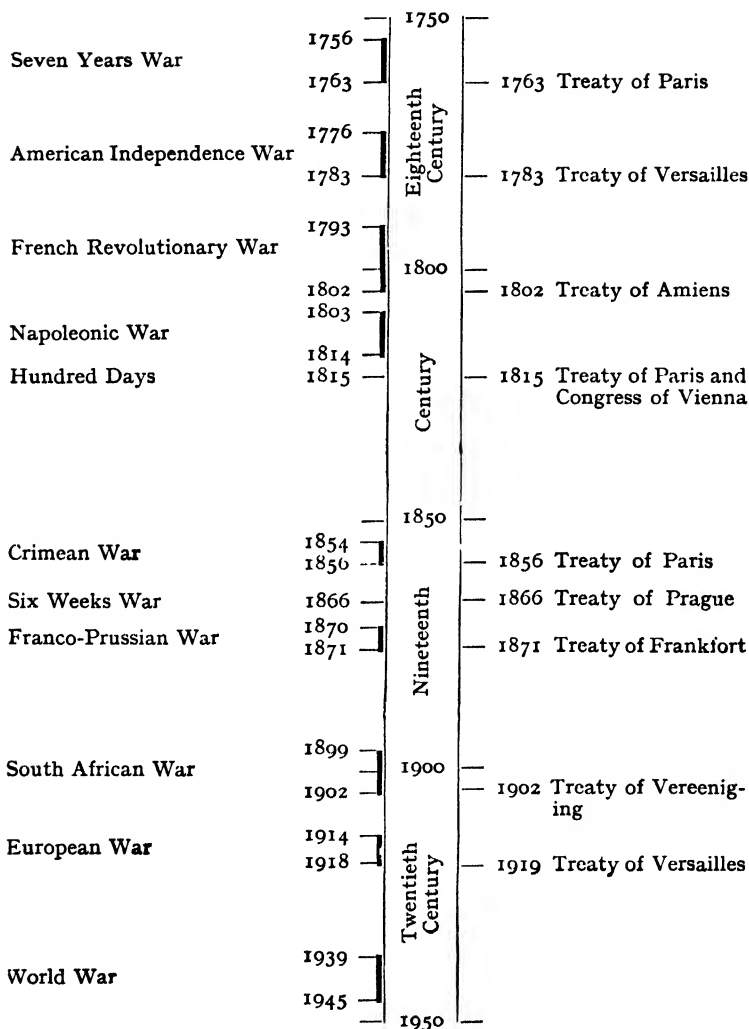
1914. In June of that year an Austrian prince was murdered by a Serbian. Austria made war on Serbia. Russia supported Serbia, Germany supported Austria, and France supported Russia; Great Britain held back, but only for a day or two. She had an entente, not an alliance, with France, and she was not bound to fight for France. But when the Germans invaded Belgium Great Britain declared war, since in 1839 she had signed a treaty by which she promised to defend Belgium. (Italy, though a member of the Triple Alliance, did not enter the war till the following year, and then she went in against Germany and Austria.) The century of peace in Europe was at an end.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Write one important thing about each of the following: (a) Lord Byron, (b) George Canning, (c) Garibaldi, (d) Charles X, (e) the Pope in 1870, (f) Metternich.
2. What did Bismarck do in order to unite the German states in an Empire?
3. Make a list of the French Revolutions (the changes in French government) between 1780 and 1880.
4. How were the powers of Europe divided in the twentieth century?
5. Which countries took part in the war of 1914-18, and on which side?

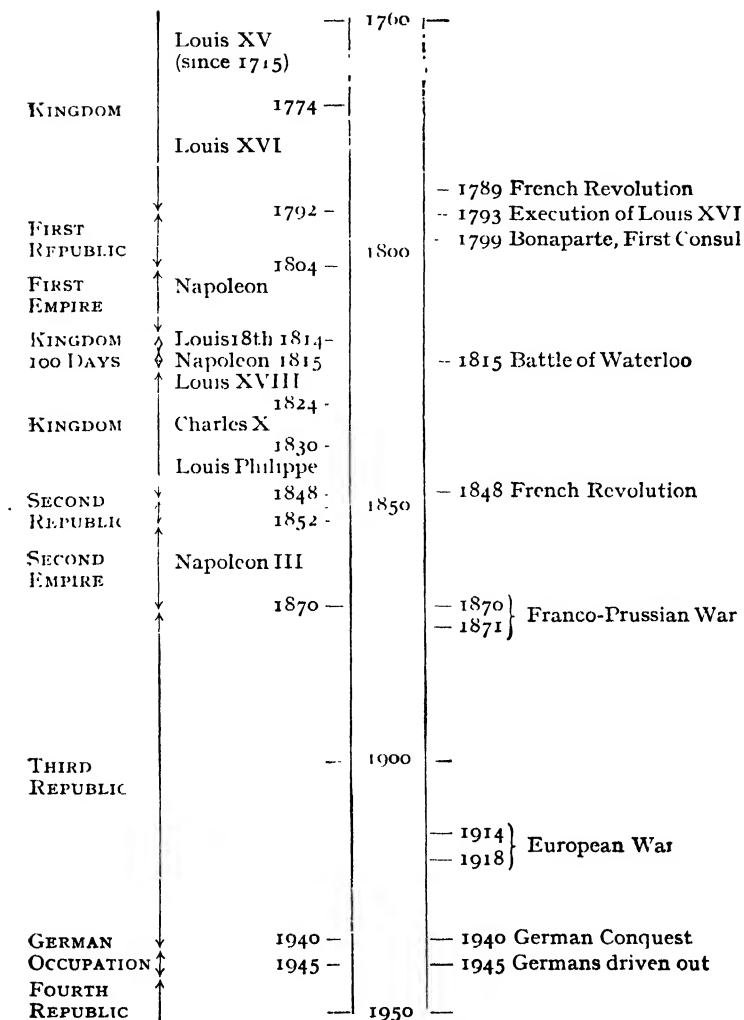
TIME CHART

TWO CENTURIES OF PEACE AND WAR



TIME CHART

MODERN FRANCE



CHAPTER 23

RUSSIA

Russia before Peter the Great. Before the eighteenth century Russia was hardly regarded as part of Europe. Its only coastline was in the north, and its only port was Archangel, which was icebound for the greater part of the year. The eastern shore of the Baltic sea was held by Sweden and the northern shore of the Black Sea by the Turks. Much of the history of Russia in the last two centuries has been concerned with Russian efforts to obtain warm-water ports.

Peter the Great. The first of the Tsars to try this was Peter the Great, who ruled from 1689 to 1725. He wanted "a window to the west," and in a war with Sweden he conquered part of the Baltic coastline and founded the city of St. Petersburg, much of the work being done by Swedish prisoners of war. He ordered his nobles to build houses in his new city, and in the planning of his own palace he imitated that of Louis XIV at Versailles. This was a mistake, since the climate of St. Petersburg was much colder than that of France and a different kind of building would have been more suitable. Peter also made war on the Turks and conquered Azov, but in a later war he lost it, and at his death Russia held no part of the Black Sea coast.

Russia was very backward, and Peter wished it to become like the countries of Western Europe. Early in his reign he visited several European countries, including England, and he saw many things which he determined to introduce into Russia. While in England he even worked for a short time in a shipyard at Deptford. Some of the changes he made when he returned to Russia seem to have been very foolish. The Russians wore coats which were much longer than those in fashion in England and France, and Peter placed men with shears at the gates of cities with orders

to cut to the proper length the coats of people who passed in or out. Most Russian men wore beards, while the men of western Europe were clean shaven. Peter ordered the nobles at his court to shave off their beards, though he afterwards allowed them to grow beards if they paid a special tax. Many of his orders were about more important things. Schools were founded, books were printed, mines were opened up, and new industries were started.

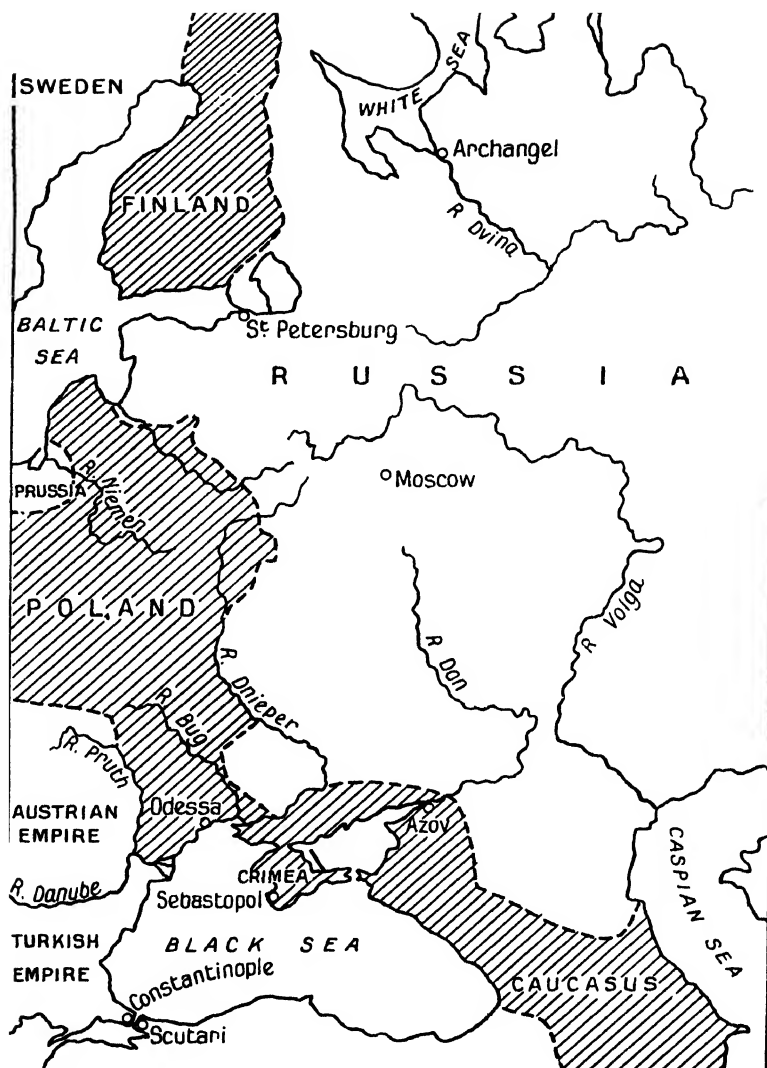
Peter was very tall and strong. He was very cruel, and after a revolt of his guards he beheaded many of the rebels himself. He had his own son tortured and put to death. Yet he did many good things for Russia, and he deserved his title of "the Great."

Catherine II. The other great ruler of Russia in the eighteenth century was Catherine the Great, who was Empress from 1762 to 1796. In her reign a long stretch of Black Sea coast, including the Crimea, was conquered from the Turks. Catherine was visited by the Holy Roman Emperor, Joseph II, and she took him on a tour through the Crimea shortly after its conquest to show him how prosperous it was. Model villages were put up here and there before the royal visitors arrived, and after they had passed the buildings were taken down and put up again in other places still to be visited by Catherine and Joseph.

In her reign, too, Poland ceased to be an independent state; it was divided among Russia, Prussia, and Austria, and Russia obtained the largest part.

Alexander I. Catherine's son, Paul, was a madman who reigned only five years. His son, Alexander I, was Tsar from 1801 to 1825. It was in his reign that Napoleon invaded Russia and had to retreat from Moscow. The Russians joined in the fighting against Napoleon in 1813 and 1814, and after the fall of the French Emperor the Russian army was regarded as the most powerful in Europe.

Nicholas I. Alexander was followed by his brother, Nicholas I, and it was in the reign of Nicholas that Great Britain and Russia became unfriendly. Russia had not yet got an easy way by sea



RUSSIA

(Russian gains between the death of Peter the Great and the outbreak of the European War in 1914 are shaded)

to the western world. In the time of Peter she had gained a Baltic coast (but it was icebound in winter) and in the reign of Catherine a Black Sea coast (but the only way out of the Black Sea was through the Dardanelles, which were controlled by the Turks). Nicholas wanted to become master of Constantinople, so that the Dardanelles would be under his control. Great Britain was against this and was prepared to support Turkey against Russia. That is why the Crimean war took place. In that war British and French soldiers suffered very much from the cold, and more men became ill through the cold than from Russian attacks. Nicholas said that he would win through his two generals—General January and General February (in French, General Janvier and General Février). But early in 1855 he fell ill and died. As *Punch* said, "General Février turned traitor."

Alexander II. Alexander II, Tsar from 1855 to 1881, was the greatest and best of the Russian rulers in the nineteenth century. He made many reforms in Russia. He released many prisoners and recalled many men who had been exiled to Siberia. He allowed Russians to travel to other countries. Newspapers were allowed to print what they liked, and schools and universities were founded. But his greatest work was the freeing of the Russian serfs.

Until this time the country people in Russia had been serfs. They lived on the lands of the Tsar or of the nobles, for whom they had to work. They belonged to their masters and were not allowed to leave their villages. Serfs might be flogged and imprisoned by order of their masters, and even if they were killed the master was not punished. The nobles said that the serfs were idle and dirty and drunken and ignorant. This was true, but it was not the fault of the serfs. It would have been surprising if they had not been ignorant; they had no chance of learning any better way of life.

There had been no serfdom in England for hundreds of years, and though it had lasted longer in some other countries of Europe it now existed nowhere but in Russia. The Tsar was convinced

that his country would remain backward while its people were serfs and that it could not become as prosperous as the countries of western Europe until Russians were free. He ordered that the



Weaver Smith

"GENERAL FÉVRIER TURNED TRAITOR"

serfs should be free men and that each of them should have a piece of land from the estate of his former master. For these lands the peasants had to pay money for many years, so that they were not much better off—but they were free.

Alexander set up a system of councils in Russia. In every district there was to be a council elected by the people, and the councils were ordered to look after roads, schools, and hospitals in their district. In this way the people of Russia began to have a share in the work of government.

Though Alexander II did more than any other Tsar for his people some of them, known as Nihilists, wanted to overthrow his Government, and they plotted against him. Thousands of the Nihilists were arrested by the secret police and were imprisoned or sent to Siberia. Many Nihilists tried to murder important people in Russia by bomb or pistol or knife, and in 1881 the Tsar was killed by a bomb.

Alexander III. The Nihilists gained nothing by murdering a Tsar who meant well, for he was followed by his son, Alexander III, who was a tyrant and put down Nihilism as harshly and cruelly as he could. When Alexander III died in 1894 he was succeeded by his son, Nicholas II, the last of the Tsars.

Nicholas II. Nicholas II was no better than any other of the long line of Tsars. Yet he was alarmed at the increase of the armies in many European countries, and he proposed that the rulers of the chief states should meet and agree to reduce their armies. They met at The Hague in 1899, and again in 1907, but they could not agree to reduce their forces, for they did not trust one another. Though these meetings failed it was to the credit of Nicholas that the attempt was made.

On a Sunday in January, 1905, a procession of many thousands of people, led by Father Gapon, a priest, marched to the Tsar's palace at St. Petersburg to ask for some improvement in their condition. They were not rebels against the Tsar—yet the troops at the palace fired upon them, and a thousand people were killed. This massacre turned many loyal Russians into rebels, and in the next few months several Russian nobles were killed by bombs, and even the Tsar's uncle was murdered. There were mutinies in the army and navy and strikes in the factories, and many houses were burned.

At length the Tsar resolved to change his policy by setting up a Russian Parliament, to be known as the Duma. But very few people were allowed to vote at the elections, and the Duma did not represent the people; in any case, it had very little power. People were no better off, no more prosperous, no happier, than before the Duma was established.

For many years the Tsar and his wife were under the influence of a monk named Rasputin. Their son was ill, and they believed that this man was able to heal him, though the boy got no better. Rasputin lived in the palace, and everybody who wished to be in favour with the Tsar had to make friends with him and give him presents.

In 1914 Russia entered the European War against Germany and Austria. The Russian armies were large, but they were badly trained and led and they were not properly armed; some regiments had no rifles. They won some successes against the Austrians, but they were heavily defeated by the Germans under Hindenburg. Immense numbers of men were slain or captured, and the Russian people, in the army and out of it, at last revolted.

The Russian Revolution. In 1917 the Tsar was deposed, and he and his family were imprisoned; early in the next year they were murdered. For a time several groups of Russians tried to gain power, and there was much fighting among them. In 1918 the Bolsheviks, under Lenin, became supreme. They made peace with Germany, but for the next two or three years they had to fight hard to remain in power, since there were risings against them in various parts of Russia and some foreign countries sent armies against them. These were all defeated, and the Bolsheviks continued to rule the country.

Lenin, the leader of the Bolsheviks, died in 1924. (The city of St. Petersburg, or Petrograd, was renamed Leningrad in honour of him.) It was not clear who would rule Russia after Lenin's death, and for a time there was a struggle for power between Trotsky and Stalin. Trotsky was beaten and went into exile, and was assassinated in Mexico in 1940. Stalin was the ruler of Russia from 1927 until his death in 1953.

Bolshevik Rule. A five-year plan was arranged in 1928 to put Russia in order. New cities were built, and old cities were rebuilt; great factories were established; roads and railways were improved; very large farms were formed; schools were opened for grown-up people as well as for children. (Eighty million grown-up people in Russia have learned to read since 1920.) Russia became more prosperous than ever before, and in 1932 a second five-year plan was announced.

The Bolsheviks were very cruel towards those who opposed them. Men and women who had supported the Tsar, and all who plotted against the Bolsheviks, were arrested and either put to death or sent to prison or to labour camps, where they were treated harshly, and many of them died. Churches were closed, and many of the clergy died in prison; perhaps this was because the Bolsheviks thought the Russian Church had always been on the side of the Tsars against the common people.

Poland. In 1939 Hitler, the ruler of Germany, made a treaty of friendship with Russia. By signing this treaty Russia made war possible. Hitler now felt safe from Russian attack, and he began the war for which he had been preparing by invading Poland, which had been restored in 1919. The Russians also entered Poland, and the two great powers divided the unhappy country between them.

The War of 1941-5. Two years later, in 1941, in spite of the treaty of friendship, Russia was attacked by the Germans, who expected to win an easy victory over them. But the Russian army under the Bolsheviks was very different from that of the Tsars. It was well trained and well armed and fought very hard against the invaders. Guns, tanks, and aeroplanes were sent to Russia by Great Britain and the United States, and, though the Germans overran a large part of the country, in the end they were driven out. But they did much damage, and several years passed before the work of repair was completed.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What did Peter the Great do to deserve his title?
2. Why were Great Britain and Russia unfriendly in the nineteenth century?
3. What did Alexander II do for his country?
4. Write three or four lines on each of the following: (*a*) the Nihilists, (*b*) the Duma, (*c*) Rasputin, (*d*) General February, (*e*) Stalin.
5. (*a*) What good things, and (*b*) what bad things, have been done in Russia by the Bolsheviks?

CHAPTER 24

THE FAR EAST

The Yellow Peril. Until the nineteenth century very little was known of two great countries in eastern Asia, one of them, China, on the mainland, and the other, Japan, consisting of a group of islands. Their ways of life were quite unlike those of Europe, and the few Europeans who visited them thought that they were barbaric, though in fact they were highly civilised. When they were better known it was found that they had very large populations; China alone contains almost a quarter of the people of the world. Many Europeans became alarmed, and they feared that if the Chinese adopted western ways they might become so powerful as to invade and conquer Europe. (In a novel published towards the end of the nineteenth century an invasion of Europe by a Chinese army of 450 divisions of 100,000 men each—a total of forty-five million men—was described. That such a novel should have been written shows how greatly some people feared the Chinese.) People talked of the Yellow Peril (because the Chinese are slightly yellow in colour), and they thought that Europe should be on its guard.

The Movement of Chinese and Japanese into other Countries. In more recent times the Yellow Peril is no longer feared, or, rather, a different kind of Yellow Peril has been feared. It has been felt that there was danger of people from these overcrowded countries moving into other lands which had more space and fewer people. Australia, Canada, and the United States all have areas of three million square miles or more. The population of Australia is only seven millions and that of Canada less than twelve millions, and though there are a hundred and thirty million people in the United States there is room for many more. In each of these countries laws have been passed to keep the Chinese and Japanese out.

China in Early Times. It is known that the Chinese were a civilised race more than four thousand years ago. They tilled the land, they mined for metals, they could write, they had a calendar, and they reared silk-worms. (For a long time Europeans thought that silk grew on trees or bushes!) It is believed that the Chinese invented gunpowder long before it was known in Europe. From very early times they worshipped their ancestors, and it was regarded as a terrible thing for a man to die without leaving children, since there would be nobody to worship his spirit.

The greater number of Chinese men and women try to follow, in their lives, the sayings of Confucius, a very good man who lived about five centuries before Christ and whose words are regarded as of the highest wisdom.

Europeans in China. China was visited by Marco Polo, a Venetian traveller, in the thirteenth century. He lived in the country for many years, and when he returned home he wrote an account of his adventures. Many people did not believe his story, but there seems no reason to think that he was untruthful.

In the seventeenth century Christian missionaries—mainly Roman Catholic—visited China, where they met with a good deal of persecution. French, Dutch, and British traders also went to China. The most successful of these were British; the East India Company opened up a regular trade with the port of Canton. The Chinese hated the “foreign devils,” and it was not possible to trade at all without making presents to the mandarins. The Company bought tea, cotton goods, and silk goods from the Chinese and sold opium, which was obtained from India, to them. The Chinese Government tried to forbid the trade in opium, but it was smoked by the Chinese, who were eager to buy it from the British merchants.

The First China War. Disputes between the Chinese and the merchants were followed by a war between Great Britain and China between 1840 and 1842. The British were successful, and peace was made by the Treaty of Nanking in 1842. The island

of Hong Kong was given to Great Britain, and the Chinese agreed to open five of their ports to British trade, instead of Canton only, as hitherto. These ports were known as treaty ports. There was no mention of the opium trade in the treaty, and it was carried

*Weaver Smith*

A MANDARIN

on as before. In 1843 the Americans, and in 1844 the French, were given the right to trade at the treaty ports. Christian missions to China were to be permitted.

The Second China War. A more serious war between Great Britain and China occurred between 1856 and 1860. In October, 1856, a vessel, the *Arrow*, which was flying the British flag, was seized by the Chinese at Canton, and the crew (all of them Chinese) were imprisoned on a charge of piracy, of which they were probably guilty. The *Arrow* had formerly been registered at Hong Kong as a British vessel, but her registry had expired in September, 1856, and at the time she was taken she had no right to fly the British flag. Nevertheless, it was felt in Great Britain that

the Chinese had insulted the British flag, and a naval force was sent to Canton. The crew of the *Arrow* were given up to the British, but in spite of this Canton was bombarded, captured, and sacked, and the Taku forts, at the mouth of the Pei-ho River, were taken.

In 1858 the Chinese Government agreed to the Treaty of Tientsin, by which nine additional treaty ports were to be opened to foreign trade, the trade in opium was made legal, and permission to missionaries to enter China was renewed. The Taku forts were given back to the Chinese.

This did not end the trouble. The Chinese did not keep the terms of the Treaty of Tientsin. In 1859 fighting was renewed and the Taku forts were captured again by the British. A strong force marched towards Peking, the capital of China, and the Chinese then asked for peace. Some officers were sent forward to arrange terms of peace, but they were seized and murdered by the Chinese. The British then took Peking and burned the Emperor's summer palace, and the Chinese were forced to give in. By the Treaty of Peking, in 1860, the Emperor agreed to receive a British ambassador in Peking, to give the British a strip of land, Kowloon, on the coast of China opposite Hong Kong, to open more treaty ports, and to pay a large sum of money.

The Opening up of China. In the latter part of the nineteenth century many mission stations—of the Church of England, the Roman Catholic Church, and other churches—were opened in China; besides their religious work the missionaries established schools and hospitals for the Chinese. Traders settled in many Chinese cities, railways were built, and further ports were opened. Some Chinese adopted western dress and ways of life, but many did not like having foreigners in their country, and in 1900 there was a great rising, the Boxer Rebellion. Europeans were besieged in Peking, but a force of troops—British and German and Japanese—reached Peking in time to rescue them, and the rebellion was crushed.

A revolution occurred in China in 1911; the Emperor, who was a boy, was deposed, and China became a republic.



THE FAR EAST

Europeans excluded from Japan. Christian missionaries, mainly Roman Catholic, visited Japan in the sixteenth century, but they were persecuted, and some of them were put to death. The Japanese were even more determined than the Chinese to keep foreigners out of their country. Even when a ship tried to put into a Japanese port after being damaged by storm it was driven off by gun-fire. It was not till 1843, after the Japanese had learned how successful the British were in the First China War, that foreign ships were allowed to buy food and fuel at Japanese ports (and even then the sailors were forbidden to land), and it was not till 1859, after the British had shown their strength in the Second China War, that Japan made treaties with Great Britain, France, and the United States by which trade was permitted in certain treaty ports.

The Opening up of Japan. The real change in Japan came in 1868. After that year Japan was thrown open to Europeans. Many Japanese dressed as Europeans; railways were built, ports and telegraphs were established, and newspapers were published. Many of the Japanese did not like these new ways, and there was a serious rebellion of the Samurai, the Japanese nobles, who wished to get rid of the foreigners. It was put down, and the Japanese continued to adopt western ideas.

Japan and China. The Japanese army was trained as were European armies, and modern warships were built for the Japanese navy. The Japanese were more advanced than the Chinese, and in a war with China in 1894-5 they were victorious. They received the island of Formosa, and Korea, formerly a Chinese province, became independent. China seemed so weak that other powers hastened to get what they could from her. The Russians were building a railway across Siberia to the Pacific, and they planned the line to cross the Chinese province of Manchuria to Vladivostok. They took Port Arthur, and the British took Wei-hai-wei. It seemed possible that China, far from being a Yellow Peril to Europe, would before long be split up among other powers.

The Russo-Japanese War. Great Britain and Japan became allies in 1902. It was agreed that if either country was at war the other should remain neutral unless a second power should attack the one engaged in war; if that should happen, the allies would help each other. War broke out between Russia and Japan in 1904, and Great Britain was neutral, but if any other country had helped Russia Great Britain would have helped Japan. The Japanese were victorious in this war, taking Port Arthur from the Russians. This was rather a surprise to the peoples of Europe, who felt alarmed and uneasy that a race of yellow men in the Far East should have beaten a great European power.

The War of 1914-18. Both Japan and China were on the side of the allies against Germany in the European War of 1914-18. The Chinese did little or nothing, but the Japanese fleet captured certain German islands in the Pacific Ocean. Great Britain had no need to send any part of her navy to the Pacific in this war, as Japan was her ally there.

Japan and China. After the war Great Britain and Japan became less friendly. The British Government thought that Japan intended to conquer China. In 1932 the Japanese invaded and conquered Manchuria, which they renamed Manchukuo. Both China and Japan were members of the League of Nations, and the League ought to have acted against Japan for attacking her neighbour. It did not do so; had it acted firmly against Japan and forced her to give Manchuria back to China it is possible that the World War of 1939-45 would not have taken place.

Further fighting between Japan and China started in 1937 and continued till 1945. Large parts of China were overrun by the Japanese, but the Chinese refused to give in.

The War of 1941-5. In 1941 the Japanese attacked American ships at Pearl Harbour, Hawaii, without warning, and the United States and Great Britain declared war on them. For a time the

Japanese had much success, conquering Hong Kong, the Philippine Islands, Malaya, Burma, Borneo, and part of New Guinea. Neither British nor Americans could spare sufficient forces to conquer the Japanese until the war with Germany was ended,



THE WAR OF 1941-5 IN THE FAR EAST
(Territories occupied by the Japanese are shaded)

though Burma was recovered by Lord Louis Mountbatten and the Philippines by General MacArthur. When Germany surrendered, in May, 1945, both Great Britain and the United States prepared to send large forces to the Pacific. This proved to be unnecessary. In August, 1945, Hiroshima was destroyed by the dropping of an atomic bomb, and as Japan did not surrender at once another atomic bomb was dropped on Nagasaki. The Japanese Government did the only thing possible; it surrendered.

The Japanese had to give up all their conquests, and an army of occupation was stationed in Japan. China, after eight years of fighting, was freed from her enemies and could hope for a period of peace in which she might recover from the wounds of a long war. Even during the war the Chinese did their best to educate and train their people. It is said that forty-five million people in China learned to read during the eight years of war, and Chinese universities continued their work in places in western China far from the Japanese.

Unfortunately, peace did not come to China at once, as civil war occurred between the Chinese Government, under the great General Chiang Kai-Shek, who had led the Chinese throughout the war with Japan, and the Chinese Communists. In 1946 a truce was arranged between the two sides, but fighting broke out again. Chiang Kai-Shek was forced to retire with his followers to the island of Formosa, and a Chinese Communist republic was established on the mainland of China.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. How was trade carried on with China in the eighteenth century?
2. Write an account of the second China War.
3. Write four or five lines about each of the following: (a) the Yellow Peril, (b) mandarins, (c) treaty ports, (d) the Boxer Rebellion, (e) the Samurai.
4. What changes were made in Japan in the latter part of the nineteenth century?
5. Briefly describe the war between Japan and the United States and Great Britain in 1941-5. What brought the war to an end?

CHAPTER 25

TWENTIETH-CENTURY WARS

The Wars. The nineteenth century was a period of peace, broken only by a few short wars. Two great wars took place in the first half of the twentieth century, wars far more terrible than those of earlier times. The first of these wars lasted for more than four years, from 1914 to 1918; the second went on for nearly six years, from 1939 to 1945. No exact names have been given them, though they are often spoken of as World Wars. This name is more suitable for the second war than for the first; most of the fighting in the earlier war was in Europe, while the later war was carried on in many other parts of the world as well as in Europe. In this chapter the first war will be called the European War of 1914-18 and the second the World War of 1939-45.

Germany. Both wars were caused by Germany, though Great Britain actually declared war on Germany in 1914 and again in 1939. In neither war did Great Britain wish to fight, nor was she ready to fight; yet on both occasions she felt bound to do so. In both wars Germany hoped that Great Britain would remain neutral and was rather surprised when she declared war.

William II. The German Emperor, or Kaiser, William II, who ruled Germany after Bismarck's retirement, prepared for war. Germany had few colonies, her trade and industry were growing, and the Emperor hoped to gain for his country important colonies from the British and French. The German army was increased by the conscription of every fit man, and it was armed with the best weapons. A new German navy was built which, it was hoped, would become as large as the British navy. Aeroplanes and airships (Zeppelins) were built for the German air force.

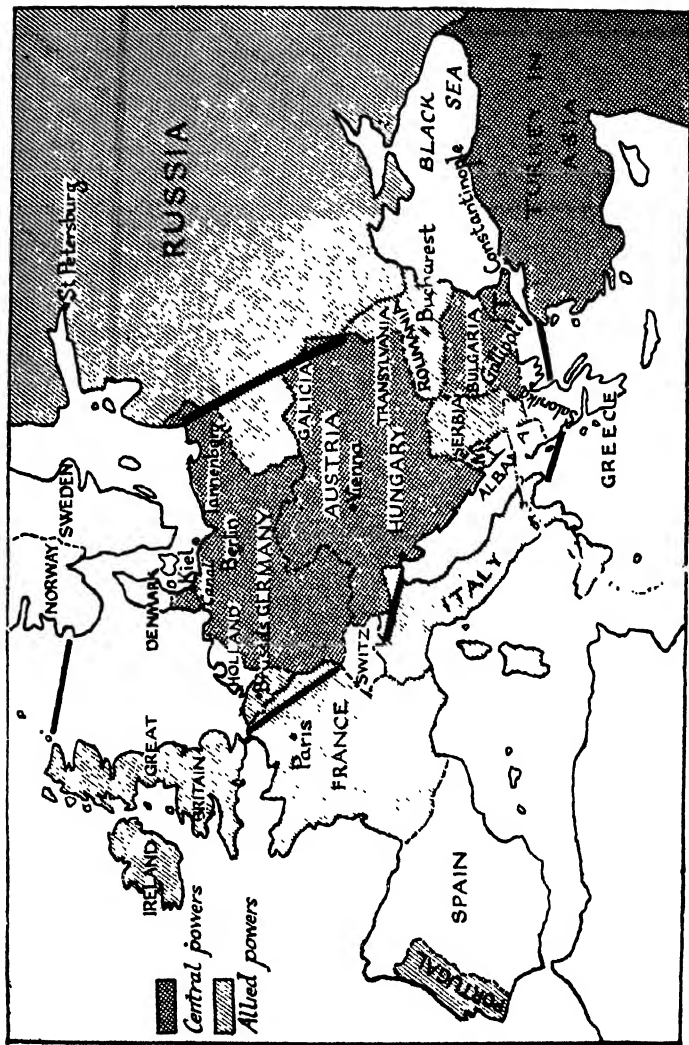
Outbreak of the European War of 1914-18. As mentioned in

another chapter, the war broke out shortly after the murder of an Austrian prince at Sarajevo. But this was not the real cause of the war; it would have occurred sooner or later even if the murder had not taken place. All the chief countries of Europe were drawn into it. Germany and Austria made war on Russia, France, and Serbia. Great Britain entered the war when the Germans invaded Belgium, and in 1915 Italy also came in against Germany and Austria. Turkey and Bulgaria were on the side of Germany and Austria. The British Dominions took part in the war by the side of Great Britain.

Warfare on Land. The central powers were surrounded by sea and land. Their coasts were blockaded by the British and French navies, and they were opposed on the west by British and French armies and on the east by those of Russia. Much of the land fighting consisted of trench warfare. The soldiers on both sides dug trenches in which to shelter from the gunfire of their enemies. Now and then there were great battles in which many thousands of men were slain, but trench warfare continued for over four years.

Warfare at Sea. At sea the Germans made little use of their big ships. In the early months of the war there were naval battles between small squadrons. A German victory in the Battle of Coronel was avenged by a British victory in the Battle of the Falkland Islands, and in the Battle of the Dogger Bank a German battle cruiser, the *Blücher*, was sunk. But the main German battle fleet only once came out to fight, in the Battle of Jutland. Both sides lost heavily, but the battle was a British victory. The British fleet remained in command of the sea, while the German fleet put back into harbour and did not appear again till the end of the war, when it came out to surrender.

But if their big ships remained in harbour the Germans made much use of submarines. They declared a blockade of the British Isles and sank merchant ships which were bringing food and other things to this country. At one time this blockade was so serious that it seemed possible Great Britain might be starved into surrender. But the navy proved equal to its task of defeating the



BLOCKADE OF THE CENTRAL POWERS, 1914-18

submarines, many of which were destroyed, and the blockade failed.

Warfare in the Air. In the air the Germans used both airships and aeroplanes in raids on Great Britain, but though some damage was done and many people were killed these raids did not help them to win the war. As the Royal Air Force grew stronger the raiders were often shot down, and towards the end of the war the raids ceased.

Russia. On their eastern front the Germans won great victories against the Russians. The Russian army was very large, but it was badly led; it was not well trained, and many of the men had no rifles. The Russians suffered very great losses, and in 1917 there was a revolution in which the Tsar was deposed and a Bolshevik Government was set up. Early in 1918 the Bolsheviks made peace with Germany.

Final Stage of the War. The Germans were now able to send all their forces to the western front. But the United States had entered the war against Germany in April, 1917, and before the end of that year there was a small American army in France. The Americans did their share of the fighting in 1918; their numbers increased, and the Germans knew that if the war lasted very much longer the American army in France would number several millions. The German army fought hard to break through but failed to do so, and in November, 1918, the German Government surrendered. The Kaiser fled into Holland, where he lived for the rest of his life, and Germany became a republic.

The Treaty of Versailles. Peace was made by the Treaty of Versailles, by which Germany had to give up all her colonies and was ordered to pay as much as possible towards the cost of the war, though she could not possibly pay all of it. She was in future to have only a small army and navy, and she was not to have any submarines or air force. An army of occupation was to remain in the Rhineland for fifteen years.

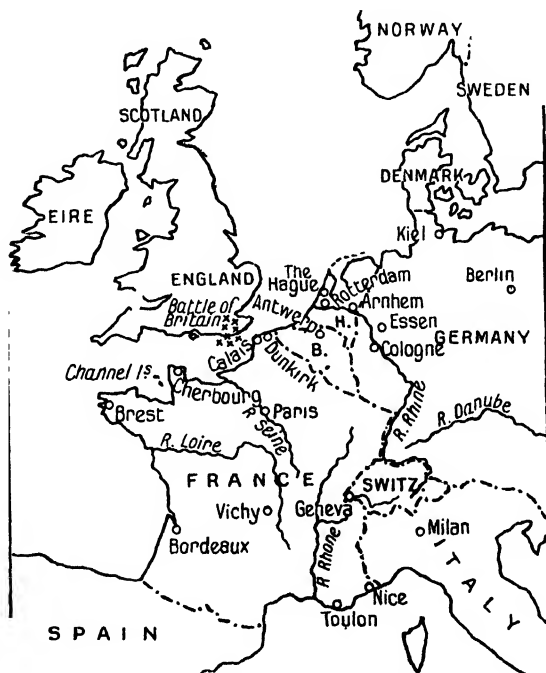
The League of Nations. A League of Nations was set up with its headquarters at Geneva. It was hoped that all nations would join it and that it would be able to prevent wars in the future. The League was not so strong as it should have been, for the United States never joined it, and many years passed before Russia became a member. Germany was admitted in 1926 but withdrew a few years later, as did Italy and Japan.

Reparations. It was arranged that Germany should pay one hundred million pounds a year for sixty-six years towards the cost of the war. The Germans did not want to pay, and declared that they could not pay so much, but at length they were forced to begin the payments. The German Government obtained most of the money for this purpose by borrowing it from people in other countries, the German people providing very little of it. The army of occupation left Germany in 1929, five years earlier than was agreed in the Treaty of Versailles.,

Hitler. Meanwhile, a new party, the Nazis, was formed in Germany by Adolf Hitler, and in 1933 Hitler, now known as the Führer, or leader, became the supreme ruler of Germany. Hitler refused to make any further payments, as required by the Treaty of Versailles, and as these could not be enforced without making war, which other nations did not want, they were allowed to drop. A large German army was raised and trained, guns and tanks were made; ships and submarines were built for the German navy; aeroplanes were built for the German air force. Much of this preparation for war was carried on in secret, and Hitler often stated that he did not intend to make war. In rearming the German nation Hitler was breaking the Treaty of Versailles, and the statesmen and peoples of other countries were uneasy, but they did nothing to stop him.

The Munich Agreement. War nearly broke out in 1938, when Hitler threatened to invade Czechoslovakia. Mr. Chamberlain, the Prime Minister of Great Britain, met him at Munich, and Hitler agreed that if a part of Czechoslovakia in which many

Germans lived were ceded to Germany he would not try to take the remainder of the country. Peace was preserved for the moment, but a few months later Hitler annexed the whole of



WESTERN EUROPE, 1939-45

Czechoslovakia. This showed that his promises were worthless. War was now certain.

Outbreak of the World War of 1939-45. Hitler then turned to Poland and demanded certain parts of that country, and Great Britain stated that she would fight for Poland if Germany attacked her. For a time Hitler held back, since he feared that Russia also might fight against Germany, and he did not want

wars with Russia in the east and Great Britain and France in the west at the same time. But in August, 1939, he made a treaty of friendship with Russia and was now ready to begin. German armies invaded Poland, and so did those of Russia. Great Britain and France declared war on Germany, though not on Russia, and the World War of 1939-45 began.

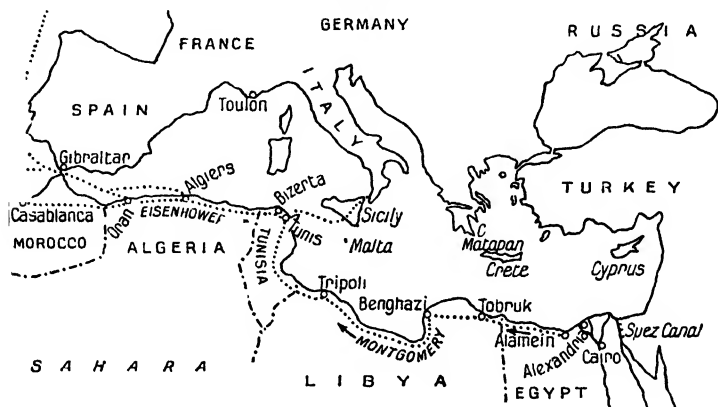
German Victories in 1940. Very little happened during the winter of 1939-40, but in the spring of 1940 the Germans conquered Denmark and Norway, and, soon afterwards, Holland and Belgium. They then invaded France, and a British army which was in France and Belgium escaped with great difficulty. It fought its way to Dunkirk, and in a few days over 300,000 men were brought back to England by craft large and small which crossed the Channel to embark the men, though their guns, tanks, and waggons had to be left behind. The Germans marched on and took Paris, and France surrendered. For the next twelve months Great Britain was alone, except for the Dominions, in the war against Germany and Italy.

Great Britain. In the United States and other countries it was believed that Great Britain would be forced to make peace. To their surprise she did not do so. Mr. Winston Churchill became Prime Minister, and he stated:

We shall fight on the seas and oceans, we shall fight with growing strength in the air, we shall defend our island whatever the cost may be, we shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets, we shall fight in the hills, we shall never surrender.

The Battle of Britain. The British army had to be re-formed and rearmed, and it seemed likely that the next German move would be an invasion of England. Hitler made his first great mistake in not attacking England at once, when she was weakest. He did not do so, and in the autumn of 1940 big German air raids on the south of England began. The Germans intended to destroy the Royal Air Force, but the Royal Air Force destroyed

so many of the raiders that the plan failed. Heavy night air raids during the winter did much damage in London and other towns, and thousands of people were killed, but there was no thought of giving in. Meanwhile, the Royal Air Force raided the ports on the other side of the North Sea and the English Channel in order to destroy boats and barges which were being got ready to carry an invading army to England.



MEDITERRANEAN AND NORTH AFRICA, 1939-43

German Attack on Russia. In 1941 Hitler made a second great mistake in attacking Russia. He expected an easy victory, but though the Germans overran large parts of the country the Russians fought hard and ultimately drove them out.

Italy. Italy had for many years been ruled by a dictator, Mussolini, who joined in the war on the German side when France surrendered. It was expected that the Italians would attack Egypt and the Suez Canal from Libya, and a large British army was sent to Egypt to defend it. In November, 1942, General Montgomery defeated German and Italian armies at the Battle of Alamein, and drove them across the north of Africa, conquering the Italian colony of Tripoli.

Japan and the United States. In December, 1941, the Japanese attacked American ships at Pearl Harbour, Hawaii, and the United States declared war not only on Japan but also on Germany and Italy, while Great Britain declared war on Japan. The President of the United States, Mr. Franklin D. Roosevelt, had already given much help to Great Britain by supplying food and weapons on Lease-Lend, and in November, 1942, a large British and American army was landed in North Africa, under General Eisenhower. Montgomery advanced and joined Eisenhower, and the Germans and Italians were cleared out of Africa.

The Surrender of Italy. British and American forces crossed to the island of Sicily and conquered it, and then they invaded the mainland of Italy. After some further fighting the Italian Government surrendered, but German armies in Italy continued to oppose the British and Americans, and it was not until nearly the end of the war that they were finally driven out.

Surrender of Germany. Preparations were made in England for an invasion of Europe. Men and stores were collected in Kent and Sussex; artificial harbours (known as "Mulberry") were constructed and towed across the Channel to the French coast; a pipe ("Pluto"—Pipe Line Under The Ocean) was laid in the Channel in order to supply the invading army with petrol.

The Germans sent flying bombs and rockets to England at the time of the invasion, perhaps in the hope that so much damage would be done and so many people killed that Great Britain would be glad to make peace. Damage was done and people were killed, but nobody on this side of the Channel thought of making peace till Germany was beaten.

In June, 1944, the British and Americans under the command of General Eisenhower crossed the Channel and invaded Normandy. The invasion was a great success, and in a few weeks the Germans were being driven out of France, which by the end of the year was nearly clear of the enemy. While Germany was being attacked from the west by Anglo-American armies the

Russians were advancing from the east, and Germany was invaded from both sides. The end came in May, 1945, when the German generals surrendered. Before this, Hitler had committed suicide.

The War in the Far East. The general course of the war in the Far East has been described in another chapter. Neither Great Britain nor the United States could spare sufficient forces for the defeat of the Japanese while the German war was going on, though the enemy were checked in New Guinea and prevented from occupying the whole island by the stubborn fighting of the Australians.

The Surrender of Japan. The British and Americans intended to send large fleets to the Pacific when Germany was beaten. This proved to be unnecessary. For a long time men of science in Great Britain and the United States had been at work trying to make an atomic bomb, which would be much more powerful than any bomb filled with ordinary explosives. The last part of the work was done in the United States, and atomic bombs were made. In August, 1945, an atomic bomb was dropped on the Japanese city of Hiroshima, which was almost totally destroyed, with the death of perhaps 100,000 people. The Japanese Government was invited to surrender, and as it did not do so at once another atomic bomb was dropped, this time on Nagasaki. The Japanese Government realised that if it did not give in every city in Japan would be destroyed by atomic bombs, and it surrendered. The war in the Far East was over.

War Criminals. The leaders of the German Government, who with Hitler had planned the making of war, were put on trial, and after a long hearing twelve of them were sentenced to be hanged and others were sent to prison. This was the first time in modern history that the leaders of a defeated nation had been made to suffer for making war. After all earlier wars the men who started them had suffered nothing; the sufferers in war had been the common people. It was hoped that these trials

would be a warning to any one who, in any country, might try to begin a war in the future.

The United Nations. The League of Nations had failed to prevent the World War of 1945, and a new organisation, the United Nations, was set up to try to prevent wars in future. It is too early yet to say whether the United Nations will be more successful than the League, but it may be noticed that, while the League was started without the United States and Russia, both these countries have been members of the United Nations from the beginning.

Comparison between these and Earlier Wars. In some ways the wars described in this chapter were different from any that had happened before. More men were engaged on both sides; in earlier wars armies were numbered by thousands, in these wars by millions. The British army in France in 1914 contained over 100,000 men; the Kaiser called it a "contemptible little army" because it was so small. (The men who fought in it are to-day very proud of being called "Old Contemptibles.") Yet in the War of the Spanish Succession Marlborough never had so many men under his command. In 1812 Napoleon invaded Russia with 600,000 men; so great an army had hardly been heard of before. Yet it would not have seemed a very large force in Europe in 1945.

The number of men killed in these wars was very great. In the European War of 1914-18 Great Britain and the Dominions lost nearly a million men; Russia and Germany and France each lost far more. It is likely that as many as ten million men died in that war, and perhaps many more. In the World War of 1939-45 the total losses were no doubt quite as large, though the British losses were not so great as in the earlier war.

These wars differed from earlier wars in another way. In former times wars were fought by soldiers and sailors while ordinary people went about their business. They heard of a battle now and then, and at the end of the war there was a treaty by which, perhaps, the country gained or lost a colony or two.

But everybody—every man, woman, and child—was drawn into these wars. Because of air raids anybody might be killed, and people would say, in joke, that “the safest place was in the army.” Nearly everybody did some kind of work to help on the war. In the last war women as well as men were forced to serve in the army or navy or air force, and those who were not in one of the services were compelled to undertake useful work of some other kind, such as nursing or teaching. And it was felt that if Great Britain lost this last war more would be lost than a colony or two. The country would be free no longer, and the people would become slaves to their enemies. The story of England would have come to an end. This did not happen.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Give the reasons for the outbreak of war in 1914.
2. Mention the chief naval events of the war of 1914-18.
3. What was settled by the Treaty of Versailles?
4. What preparations for war were made by Hitler between 1933 and 1939?
5. What were the chief (a) German successes, and (b) German failures, in the year 1940?
6. Write four or five lines about each of the following: (a) the Old Contemptibles, (b) Zeppelins, (c) the Munich agreement, (d) Lease-Lend, (e) atomic bombs.
7. What was done by each of the following to gain victory in the war of 1939-45: (a) Roosevelt, (b) Churchill, (c) Eisenhower, (d) Montgomery, (e) Mountbatten?

CHAPTER 26

SOME FAMOUS BRITISH PEOPLE

Warren Hastings. (1732-1818.) Warren Hastings went to India as a clerk in the service of the East India Company in 1750, and a few years later he fought in Bengal under Clive against Siraj-ud-Daula. At that time many of the English merchants and clerks in India were becoming rich by taking presents, which were really bribes, from the natives, and by trading on their own account instead of for the Company. Hastings refused to make money in these ways and became known as an entirely honest man at a time when there were very few honest men in India.

Some changes were made in the government of British possessions in India in 1773, and Hastings was made Governor-General of Bengal. He wanted to put an end to the bribery that was going on, but though he was Governor-General he had at first very little power. A Council of four men was appointed to advise him, and he was not allowed to do anything without the consent of the Council. One member, Barwell, was always on his side, but the other three were against him, and they found fault with everything he wished to do. At length two of them died, and as the two new members who were appointed supported Hastings he had no further trouble with the Council. The remaining member, Philip Francis, was a bitter enemy of Hastings, and when the Governor-General stated that Francis was neither honourable nor truthful Francis challenged him to a duel. Francis was wounded, and returned to England.

While Hastings was Governor-General the War of American Independence was being fought. France joined in the war, and there was fighting between French and British in India. The ruler of Mysore, a large state in the south of India, helped the French by fighting the British, and the Marathas of central India also made war on them. The Marathas were defeated, and so was

the Rajah of Mysore, and British troops captured Pondicherry, the chief French trading post in India.

Hastings returned to England in 1785. Francis had now been in England for several years, and he told many untrue stories of the way the Governor-General had treated the Indians. As a result Hastings was impeached; that is, he was tried before the House of Lords. The trial lasted, off and on, for seven years, from 1788 to 1795, and Hastings was found not guilty of all the charges brought against him. But the cost of the trial was very great, and he was ruined. The East India Company granted him £90,000 and gave him a pension of £4,000 a year; without this, he would have passed his old age in poverty.

Hastings had not oppressed the people of India. The charges against him were untrue and were brought by his enemies, and there is no doubt that the result of his trial was right. He was one of the greatest and best of the long line of Governors-General in India.

Pitt. (1759-1806.) William Pitt was the son of William Pitt, Earl of Chatham (the Pitt of the Seven Years War). He was not strong as a boy, but he was well educated. He became a barrister, and when he was only twenty-one years old he was a member of the House of Commons.

For a few months in 1783 the King's leading ministers were Lord North and Charles James Fox. George III did not like them, and in December of that year he dismissed them and appointed Pitt to be Prime Minister, though he was only twenty-four years old. Pitt had no majority in the House of Commons and was defeated again and again. Fox and his friends laughed at the young Prime Minister and called his Government the Mince-pie Administration, "because," they said, "it will not last long after Christmas." Parliament was dissolved in March, 1784, and a hundred and sixty of Fox's friends were defeated in the general election. Pitt had a majority in the new Parliament, and the Mince-pie Administration lasted for eighteen years!

The country was at peace until 1793, and during that time Pitt ruled it well. The government of India was settled by him so

well that no further change was made till after the Indian Mutiny. Pitt also settled the government of Canada in a way that lasted fifty years, and it was in his time that the first British settlement was made in Australia.

War with France broke out in 1793. Pitt was not so good a war minister as his father, but he was better than any other man of his time would have been. The French were not beaten, and, on the other hand, Great Britain was not invaded (except by a small party of French at Fishguard, and they were quickly made prisoners). Pitt resigned in 1801 because he and the King could not agree about the treatment of the Roman Catholic Irish.

Henry Addington was Prime Minister from 1801 to 1804. During this time peace was made with France and war broke out again. People wanted Pitt to be Prime Minister again, and said:

Pitt is to Addington,
As London is to Paddington,

meaning, of course, that Pitt was a much greater man than Addington.

Pitt became Prime Minister again in 1804. During the next year or two the Battle of Trafalgar was fought and England was saved from invasion. Pitt formed an alliance of Great Britain with Russia and Austria and hoped that Napoleon would be beaten, but the French Emperor defeated his enemies at Austerlitz in December, 1805. Pitt was very ill at the time, and when the news of Austerlitz reached him he was broken-hearted. He died in January, 1806, at the age of forty-six. During nearly half of his short life he had been Prime Minister.

Pitt kept on during the war without any thought of yielding to the French, and though the final defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo did not happen till nearly ten years after his death he was always regarded as "the pilot that weathered the storm."

Nelson. (1758-1805.) Since the time of Drake this country has produced many fine admirals, of whom Nelson stands out as the greatest. Horatio Nelson was only twelve years old when he became a midshipman in the navy, and while still young he went

on several voyages and also learned the work of a pilot on the Thames. When he was only twenty he reached the rank of captain and was given command of a frigate. Though most of his



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NELSON

life was spent at sea he always suffered from seasickness when he embarked on a fresh voyage.

When the French Revolutionary War broke out he was in command of a ship in the Mediterranean. In 1794 he was with a

landing party which was trying to take the fort of Calvi in Corsica when a shot from one of the guns of the fort struck the ground near him, throwing sand and gravel in his face. As a result he lost the sight of his right eye.

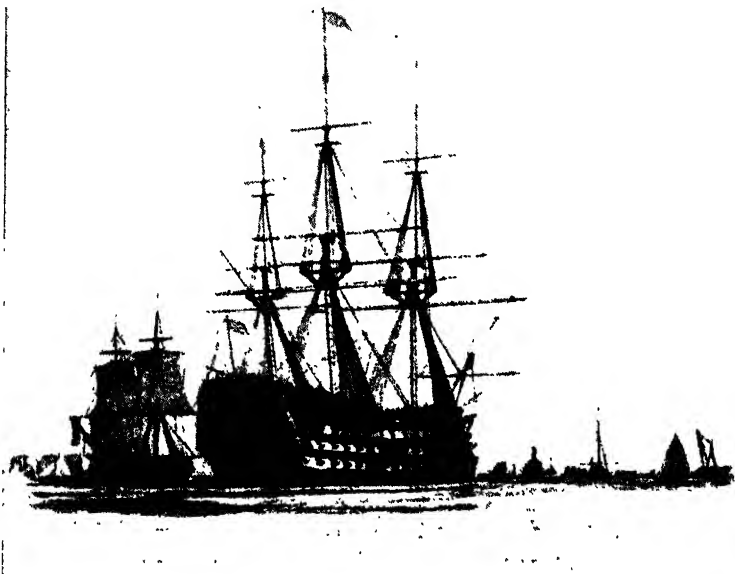
In 1797 he was with Sir John Jervis at the Battle of Cape St. Vincent. The defeat of the Spanish fleet was largely due to Nelson, who was promoted rear-admiral after the battle. Later in the year, in an attack on the Spanish at Teneriffe, he was wounded in the elbow and lost his right arm.

He was back in the Mediterranean in 1798. Bonaparte sailed from Toulon to Egypt, and Nelson pursued so hotly that he reached Alexandria before the French. Thinking they had made for some other port, he cruised about for a month, and, returning to Alexandria, found the French ships at anchor there. They were close inshore, and their officers expected that the English attack would not be made till next day and that it would come from the starboard (or seaward) side. They cleared the guns on that side of the ships and crowded everything on deck that was not wanted on to the other side, thinking that the guns there would not be used. Some of the French sailors who were ashore were not even called back to their ships. Nelson had told his captains of his plans, and they all knew what to do. He did not wait till next day and he did not attack on the starboard side. He saw that there was room for his ships to sail between the French and the shore, and they did so. The French guns on that side were not ready for action, and the British fleet gained a complete victory. Thirteen out of seventeen French ships were destroyed or captured, the French admiral's flagship, *L'Orient*, being blown up. The other four ships were captured or sunk during the next few days.

In 1801 a naval force under Sir Hyde Parker, with Nelson as second in command, was sent to attack Copenhagen. (It seems strange that Nelson, the victor in the Battle of the Nile, was not given the chief command.) The attack was resisted strongly by the shore batteries at Copenhagen, and Parker gave a signal for Nelson to withdraw. Nelson continued the fight, and when his officers pointed the signal out to him he put his telescope to his

blind eye and declared that he could not see it. Nelson won a complete victory—but he did it by disobeying an order!

When Napoleon was preparing to invade England in 1804 Nelson was on the watch. Napoleon hoped that the British



H.M.S. "VICTORY"

W. Caver Smith

admiral could be lured to the West Indies and left there while the French army was crossing the Channel. Nelson did sail to the West Indies in pursuit of a French fleet, but he returned quickly, and in the Battle of Trafalgar the French and Spanish fleets were destroyed. Nelson's signal before the battle was, "England expects every man will do his duty." He was shot during the battle, and died three hours later. Twenty of the thirty-three enemy ships were taken, and others were damaged.

Nelson's flagship, the *Victory*, is still on the active list of the navy, and is to be seen in Portsmouth harbour.

Wellington. (1769-1852.) Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, was born in Ireland in the year that Napoleon was born in Corsica. He lived in an age of great generals; at different times he was opposed to many of Napoleon's marshals and to Napoleon himself, and he overcame them all.

Wellesley was a lieutenant-colonel at the age of twenty-four. For many years he served in India, where his brother, Lord Mornington, was Governor-General, and he fought in the Mysore War of 1798 and the Maratha War of 1803-6, winning victories over the Marathas at Assaye and Argam.

In 1808 he was sent to Portugal with a small force to help the Portuguese against the French, who had invaded their country. He defeated Junot at the Battle of Vimiero, and the French left Portugal.

From 1809 to 1814 he commanded the British forces in the Peninsula. He constructed the lines of Torres Vedras between the Tagus and the sea, and behind these lines he gathered and trained a great army which at length drove the French out of Spain. He became a Field-Marshal in the army and was made Duke of Wellington.

In 1815 he defeated Napoleon at the Battle of Waterloo. This was his last battle, for there was no further war of any importance in his lifetime. He was very strict and was not very popular with his men, though they were always sure that "Old Nosey" would lead them to victory. Unlike many other generals, Wellington was always depressed after a victory; he was shocked at the sight of hundreds of slain on a battlefield. To a lady who said she would like to see a great victory he replied: "Madam, there is nothing worse than a great victory—except a great defeat."

In after years Wellington was the leader of the Tory party in the House of Lords, and from 1828 to 1830 he was Prime Minister. He was opposed to the parliamentary Reform Bill of 1832, and though after Waterloo he had been the most popular man in England the mob now turned against him. The windows of his house were broken, and when he rode through the streets of London the people jeered at him; he took no notice of them, and

nobody ventured to attack him. This hatred of Wellington did not last, and if he was not really popular in his old age he was at least respected.

When Queen Victoria was crowned in 1838 the French Government sent Marshal Soult as ambassador to attend her coronation. Soult had opposed Wellington in Spain, and the two veterans now met as friends. Wellington entertained Soult, and perhaps these two old soldiers "fought their battles over again."

Peel. (1788-1850.) Sir Robert Peel was the greatest British statesman in the first half of the nineteenth century. His grandfather and father had both been factory owners at Bury, in Lancashire, and they became very rich.

Peel entered Parliament as a Tory, and in the reign of George IV he became Home Secretary. At this time there were over two hundred crimes for which men could be put to death. The penalty of death did not stop people from committing these crimes, since often they were not caught, and even when caught they were not always found guilty. Peel thought that smaller punishments would be enough to prevent crime if criminals had little chance of getting away. He abolished the death penalty for most of these crimes, and he established the Metropolitan Police Force to keep order in the streets and to catch criminals.

Peel was opposed to the reform of Parliament in 1832, but once this was carried he knew it could not be undone. By 1835 he had become the leader of the Tory party. He changed its name to Conservative and stated that in future it would not be opposed to any reforms that were necessary.

Peel's greatest work was done when he was Prime Minister, from 1841 to 1846. Many people were unemployed at that time, wages were low, and food was dear. He abolished the import duties on many hundreds of articles; these became cheaper, and there was more trade and more employment. In order to make up for the loss of revenue he established an income tax of sevenpence in the pound on incomes over £150 per annum. While he was Prime Minister a Mines Act was passed by which boys under ten, and women and girls of any age, were not to work

in the mines, and a Factory Act which reduced the working hours of women and children in factories.

Peel's last and greatest work was the repeal of the Corn Law. Corn coming into the country from abroad was still taxed, and when in 1845 the Irish potato crop failed Peel was convinced that foreign corn ought to be imported free of duty. The Conservative party was divided on the matter, but the repeal was carried in the House of Commons in 1846, the Whigs and some of the Conservatives voting for it. Peel had split his party, but he had saved the nation. He resigned immediately afterwards, and in 1850 he died as the result of being thrown from his horse.

Palmerston. (1784-1865.) Lord Palmerston was an Irish peer who was a member of the House of Commons. For many years he was a Tory, but after 1830 he joined the Whigs. He was a member of Parliament for fifty-eight years, from 1807 to 1865, and during nearly the whole of this period he was a minister of the Crown, first as a Tory and later as a Whig.

For many years after 1830 he was Foreign Secretary, and he tried to uphold British interests abroad in every possible way. His enemies said that he acted as a bully towards foreign countries, constantly threatening war, though this is hardly true. But he once said that, just as in the time of the Roman Empire a Roman might go anywhere without being harmed merely by saying, "I am a Roman citizen," so an Englishman should feel safe in any part of the world by stating, "I am a British subject," feeling that if he suffered any harm Great Britain would avenge him.

For the last ten years of his life, except for a short interval, Palmerston was Prime Minister.

Shaftesbury. (1801-85.) Lord Shaftesbury (who in the earlier part of his life was known as Lord Ashley) was a deeply religious man who devoted his life to improving the condition of the poor. He was a member of the House of Commons, and, after his father's death, of the House of Lords. He might have followed an ordinary

political career and been one of the Queen's ministers, but he refused, preferring to spend his time in helping the common people.

He supported the Factory Acts and the Mines Acts, and he proposed laws to protect boys who were chimney-sweeps. He was in favour of the repeal of the Corn Law, as this would make the people's food cheaper. He found that lunatics were being badly treated in some asylums, and he spoke about this in Parliament in order to get it altered. He was in favour of abolishing slavery, and he hated cruelty to animals. He thought that workmen should have better houses, and on his own estate he built cottages each with a quarter of an acre of garden and let them to his labourers for a rent of one shilling per week.

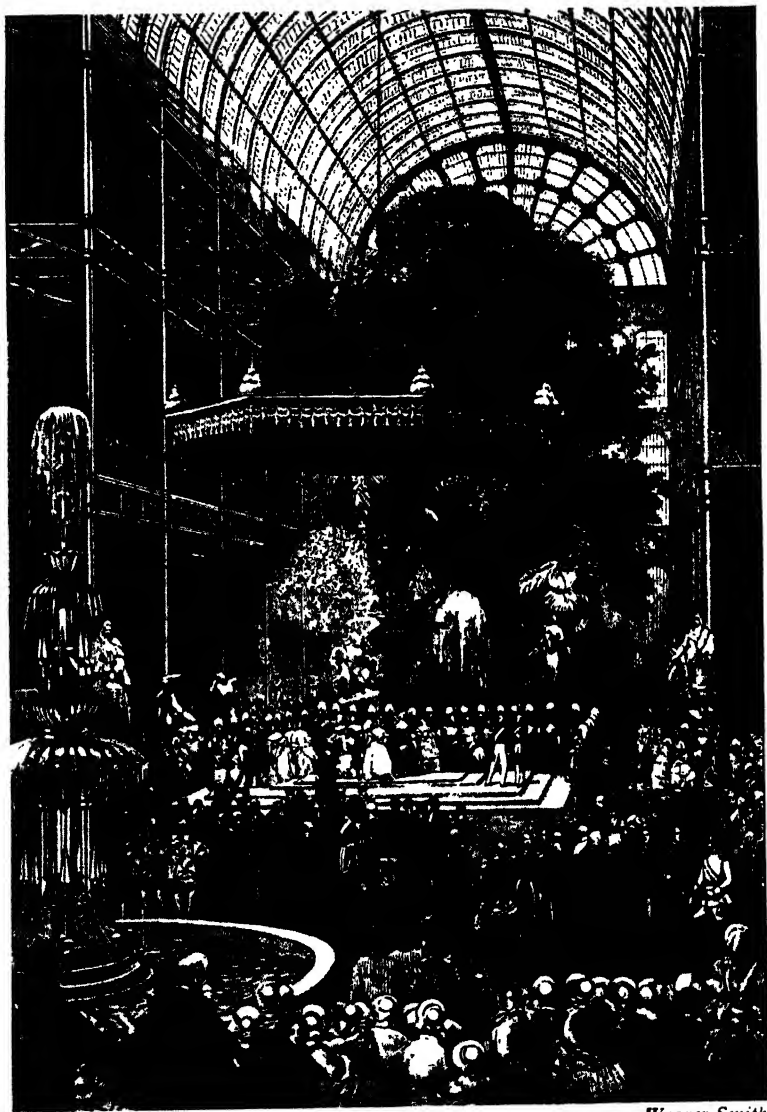
He was interested in religious work and was a member of societies which sent missionaries to heathen nations. He was one of the founders of the Young Men's Christian Association, and he was president of the British and Foreign Bible Society.

His popularity among working people is shown by the action of the costers of London, who subscribed money in order to make him a present. The present was—a donkey!

The Prince Consort. (1819–61.) Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg was the husband of Queen Victoria, whom he married in 1840, and the father of Edward VII. For many years he was not popular in England, because he was German and also because he was not well understood by English people. It was thought that he had too much influence over the Queen in affairs of state, but it is now known that his influence was always exercised for good.

The Queen and the Prince were religious, and in their lives they set a much better example to the people than had come from the kings before Victoria. The Prince was against duelling, and this foolish way of settling private quarrels died out.

The Great Exhibition of 1851, which was held in the Crystal Palace in Hyde Park, was suggested by the Prince and opened by the Queen. Many people did not want it to be held; they thought that foreigners would come to the Exhibition to learn how things were made in Great Britain and that British trade would



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THE GREAT EXHIBITION

suffer. The Prince thought that foreigners would buy more British goods and that British trade would increase, and there is no doubt that he was right. The Exhibition was the first of its kind, and many such exhibitions have since been held in foreign cities—a proof that they are thought to be good for trade.

In 1861 the Prince fell ill with typhoid fever, and died. By this time he had become liked by the people, and he was mourned by the Queen and the nation. The Albert Hall in Kensington was built in 1867 and was named in memory of him.

Florence Nightingale. (1820–1910.) Florence Nightingale, though she was English, was born in the city of Florence, in Italy. That is why she was named Florence.

At that time the daughters of wealthy parents were not expected to learn to do any useful work. The Nightingales were wealthy, but Florence was not content to be idle, and she was trained as a nurse.

In the earlier part of the Crimean War wounded soldiers were sent to a hospital at Scutari. The hospital was managed very badly, and many of the men died. Florence Nightingale with thirty-eight nurses sailed from England to take charge of the nursing at Scutari. Many of the officers, even some of the doctors, did not want her there, but she made very great improvements in the hospital. From the fact that she walked through the wards at night, carrying a lamp and speaking to the men who were not asleep, she was known as “The Lady of the Lamp.” She visited Balaclava, in the Crimea, where there was a field hospital, and there she fell ill of fever. After a severe illness she recovered and returned to Scutari.

In after life her advice was often asked for in connection with the training of nurses. But it is for her work in seeing that military nursing was properly carried out that she is famous.

Disraeli. (1804–81.) Benjamin Disraeli was a Jew by birth though not by religion. (Men of Jewish religion were not allowed to be members of the House of Commons until 1858.) He was not a rich man, and he earned money by writing novels. More

than once he tried to enter Parliament as a Whig, but he failed to secure election. In 1837 he changed his party and was elected as a Conservative. But though he changed his party he did not



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THE LADY OF THE LAMP

change his views. He wished to improve the condition of the people, and he thought this might be done by the Conservatives as well as by the Whigs.

His first speech in the House of Commons was a failure, and

other members laughed at him. "The time will come when you will hear me," he said. His appearance was strange; his face was very pale, and his black hair hung in ringlets over his forehead. His clothes were of bright colours, and he wore several gold chains across his waistcoat. For some years he was not liked, even by members of his own party; they thought that such an odd-looking man could not be trusted.

Though he was a Conservative Disraeli did not like Peel, and when the Conservative party split after the repeal of the Corn Law he was one of the leaders of the section that opposed Peel. He became Prime Minister for a few months in 1868, but it was not till 1874 that he was Prime Minister with a majority in the House of Commons.

Disraeli believed in Tory Democracy. He wanted the Conservative party to trust the common people and the common people to look to the Conservative party for reforms and improvements. In 1867, before he was Prime Minister, he proposed the second parliamentary Reform Act, by which the vote was given to the working men in the towns, and while he was Prime Minister between 1874 and 1880 many useful reforms were passed, dealing with factories, houses for workmen, public libraries, the Plimsoll line on ships, and many other things. He was also very much interested in the British Empire, and it was through him that Queen Victoria took the title of Empress of India. When the ruler of Egypt wanted to sell his shares in the Suez Canal Company Disraeli bought them on behalf of the British Government, which thus became a part owner of the canal.

Disraeli and the Queen were very friendly. He flattered her, and she thought much more highly of him than of the Liberal leader, Gladstone. A few years before his death Disraeli became Earl of Beaconsfield.

Gladstone. (1809-98.) William Ewart Gladstone was the son of a Liverpool merchant and shipowner. He entered the House of Commons in 1833 as a Tory, and was a close friend of Peel. He was in favour of the repeal of the Corn Law, and when the Conservative party was split on this question he was a Peelite.

In after years the Peelites united with the Whigs to form the Liberal party, and Gladstone became its leader. He and Disraeli, as leaders of the Liberal and Conservative parties, were great rivals for many years; it is remarkable that each of them began his career in the party opposed to that which he was afterwards to lead.

Gladstone was Prime Minister four times. He brought forward many ideas for improving the condition of the people. But his great aim was to help the Irish. "My mission is to pacify Ireland," he said when he became Prime Minister. He disestablished the Church of Ireland, so that it was no longer the state church of Ireland; this was because three-quarters of the Irish people were Roman Catholics, and he did not think it right that Irish Roman Catholics should have to pay money for a church to which they did not belong. He passed Land Acts to help Irish tenant-farmers, who had to pay very heavy rents for their farms and might be turned out at any time. The Irish wanted a separate Parliament for Ireland, and Gladstone twice proposed a Home Rule Bill which would have set up a Parliament at Dublin. The first bill was defeated in the House of Commons, the second in the House of Lords. Home Rule for Ireland was not passed until many years after Gladstone's death.

The Queen did not like Gladstone so much as Disraeli. Nevertheless, she was kind to him when he retired, and she offered to make him an earl but he did not wish it. He was greatly respected by the people, by whom he was known as the Grand Old Man.

Booth. (1829-1912.) William Booth, a pawnbroker's assistant, became a Methodist preacher. He started a Christian mission in Whitechapel to work among the people of the East End of London. In 1878 this mission took the name of the Salvation Army; it was organised like an army, with various ranks. Its members wore uniform and were called captain, major, or colonel, while their leader became known as General Booth. Much of the work of the Salvation Army was done in the open air. Men and women, with flags and a band, would march through the streets and hold services of preaching, prayer, and singing. In course of

time the Salvation Army spread to other towns and to other countries. King Edward VII was much interested in its work, and he invited General Booth to attend his coronation.

The Salvation Army does much social as well as religious work. It regards drinking and smoking as wrong, and all its members are teetotallers and non-smokers. It maintains lodging-houses for the very poor. Men who have no work may be trained in farm work at one of the Salvation Army farms, and many of them are sent out to the colonies and Dominions to earn a living there.

General Booth remained at the head of the Salvation Army until his death. Other members of his family have held high rank in the Salvation Army.

Rhodes. (1853-1902.) Cecil Rhodes was the son of a country clergyman. His health was so bad that he was sent to South Africa to join his brother, who was growing cotton in Natal. When the brothers heard of the discovery of diamonds at Kimberley they left Natal and went to the diamond fields to make their fortunes. Cecil Rhodes became very rich, and he formed a company, De Beers Consolidated Mines Limited, which controlled the whole output of diamonds in South Africa. He was a member of the Parliament of Cape Colony, and in 1890 he became Prime Minister of the colony.

Meanwhile, he formed the British South Africa Company. The Company took possession of very large tracts of land in South Africa, which have since been named Rhodesia. Rhodes visited these lands himself and became very friendly with the natives.

He hoped that a railway might be built right across Africa between Cairo and Cape Town, and he wanted to join the Boer republics (the Transvaal and the Orange Free State) with Cape Colony and Natal in a united South Africa. Paul Kruger, the President of the Transvaal, wished the republics to remain independent, and Dr. Jameson, a friend of Rhodes, led a raid into the Transvaal to overthrow Kruger's Government. The raid failed, and Jameson and his men were captured. Rhodes was believed to have known of the raid, and perhaps to have arranged it, and he was forced to resign his office.

When he died, a few years later, he left a very large sum of money to enable young men from the Dominions, the United States, and some other countries to go to the University of Oxford. It was his hope that the countries from which the Rhodes Scholars came would in this way become more friendly with one another and with Great Britain.

Lloyd George. (1863–1945.) David Lloyd George, a Welshman, was the son of poor parents. He was a solicitor by profession, but he preferred political life and entered the House of Commons. He was Chancellor of the Exchequer when Mr. Asquith was Prime Minister, and in the budget of 1909 he proposed some new taxes and some increases in existing taxation in order to provide money for old age pensions and other useful purposes. The budget was rejected by the House of Lords, and this led to the passing in 1911 of the Parliament Act, by which the House of Lords was deprived of the right of rejecting bills which dealt with taxation. In the same year he began a scheme of National Insurance against sickness and unemployment.

In the first year or two of the European War of 1914–18 the British army had not enough guns and shells, and Lloyd George was made Minister of Munitions. He arranged for much bigger supplies of all the things needed for carrying the war on. Towards the end of 1916 many members of Parliament thought that Mr. Asquith was not doing enough to win the war, and Lloyd George became Prime Minister. The war ended in 1918, and Lloyd George was hailed as "the man who won the war."

In his speeches he had made promises that could not be fulfilled—that Germany should be made to pay for the war, that the Kaiser should be hanged, and that England should become "a land fit for heroes to live in." Germany did not and could not pay for the war, the Kaiser was not hanged, and in the years after the war there were great numbers of unemployed men who had been soldiers in the war. Lloyd George became less popular, and in 1922 he resigned and was never in office again. In 1945 he was made an earl, but he died a few weeks later.

Smuts. (1870-1950.) Jan Smuts, though a Boer, was born in Cape Colony. After the Jameson raid he went to live in the Transvaal, and in the South African War of 1899-1902 he fought on the Boer side. But, unlike Kruger, he believed in a united South Africa, containing both British and Boers, and when, only a few years after the war, the two Boer states were granted self-government, Smuts became entirely loyal to Great Britain. The Union of South Africa was formed in 1910, and in the European War of 1914-18 Smuts fought on the British side.

From 1924 to 1939 General Hertzog was Prime Minister of South Africa, and Smuts was for some years opposed to him. In 1939, on the outbreak of war with Germany, Hertzog wanted South Africa to be neutral, but the South African Parliament would not agree to this. Hertzog resigned, and Smuts became Prime Minister. In many ways he gave help to Great Britain during the war, and the King appointed him to be a Field-Marshal of the British Army, although he preferred to be known by his old title of "General Smuts."

MacDonald. (1866-1937.) James Ramsay MacDonald was born of poor parents in a Scottish fishing village. In 1906 he became a member of the House of Commons, one of a group of Labour members which then appeared in the House for the first time, and before long he was the leader of the Labour party.

In 1924 he became Prime Minister of the first Labour Government in Great Britain. The Labour party had no majority in the House of Commons, and it was able to keep in office only so long as the Liberal members supported it. The Liberal members did not like MacDonald's foreign policy, and before long his Government was defeated and he resigned. He was Prime Minister again in 1929, but though the Labour party was now much larger it still failed to command a majority in the House of Commons.

In 1931 there was a great trade depression in Great Britain and in every other country in the world, and MacDonald resigned. The King asked him to form a National Government with the support of all parties, and he did so. The National Government

was supported by Conservatives and Liberals and some Labour members, but many members of the Labour party turned against him, thinking that he had really gone over to the Conservative party. He remained Prime Minister until 1935, when he resigned because of failing health.

Churchill. (1874-) Winston Churchill is a descendant of John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, who was Captain-General of the English and Dutch armies in the War of the Spanish Succession. As a young man Churchill was a cavalry officer and fought against the Dervishes at the Battle of Omdurman in 1898. In the early part of the South African War of 1899-1902 he was war correspondent of a London newspaper, the *Morning Post*, and was for a time a prisoner of the Boers.

He entered Parliament as a Conservative, but after a few years he joined the Liberal party. Later in life he returned to the Conservative party, of which he became leader. During his political life he has held many positions; he has been President of the Board of Trade, Home Secretary, War Secretary, Colonial Secretary, Chancellor of the Exchequer, and First Lord of the Admiralty.

For some years before the World War of 1939-45 he was not in any office, and as a private member of the House of Commons he warned the nation, again and again, that Germany was preparing for war. His warnings were not heeded; it is possible that if, as he wanted, Great Britain had acted firmly against Hitler before German rearmament had gone too far, the war might not have taken place.

When war began, Churchill was appointed First Lord of the Admiralty, a post he had held at the outbreak of the earlier war. In May, 1940, the Prime Minister, Neville Chamberlain, resigned, and Churchill became Prime Minister of a Government that was supported by all parties. During the next five years he was in constant touch with President Roosevelt, of the United States, and Joseph Stalin, the Russian leader; he met them several times, and together they planned the campaigns which led to victory in 1945.

At a time when it seemed likely that Great Britain would be invaded and when defeat seemed possible it was Churchill who stated boldly that "we shall never surrender," and it was Churchill who, in calling upon the nation to fight, offered the people, in words once used by Garibaldi, nothing but "blood and toil and tears and sweat."

In the General Election after the war the Conservative party was defeated, and Churchill ceased to be Prime Minister. But in 1951 the Conservatives regained a majority in the House of Commons and Churchill became Prime Minister again. The Queen recognized his services to the nation by making him a Knight of the Garter, and he is now known as Sir Winston Churchill.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Name the man who, in each of the following wars, might be called, "the man who won the war," and state briefly what each of them did: (a) the Seven Years War, (b) the Napoleonic War, (c) the European War of 1914-18, (d) the World War of 1939-45.

2. Choose three of the people described in this chapter who deserve to be admired, and state the reasons for your choice.

3. Describe the Battle of the Nile.

4. What are the things for which Sir Robert Peel is remembered?

5. Write a short life of Winston Churchill.

6. Write four or five lines about each of the following: (a) the *Victory*, (b) Torres Vedras, (c) the Crystal Palace, (d) the Plimsoll line, (e) De Beers, (f) the Mince-pie Administration.

CHAPTER 27

SOME FAMOUS PEOPLE OF OTHER COUNTRIES

Washington. (1732-99.) George Washington was the son of a gentleman of Virginia, and after the death of his elder brother he succeeded to the family estate at Mount Vernon. He had some education, but he was much more interested in outdoor life than in books, and every day he rode about his estate watching the slaves at work. He treated his slaves well; they were not overworked, they were properly fed and clothed, when they were ill a doctor attended them, and they were treated kindly in old age.

Washington lived in good style at Mount Vernon. He wore fine clothes, and often invited his friends to dinners, dances, picnics, horse-racing, and hunting. He kept a number of race-horses and he often attended race meetings, betting on the results. His life was like that of any other rich gentleman in the southern colonies.

When the French built Fort Duquesne on the Ohio River it seemed that they intended to attack Virginia, and Washington, like other young men of the colony, was ready to defend it. With the rank of major he was placed in command of a small body of soldiers. He marched towards Fort Duquesne, but his force was too small and he and 350 of his men were captured. They were well treated by the French, who released them after Washington had promised that no other attack should be made on the fort for a year. Washington served under General Braddock in his unsuccessful attack on Fort Duquesne in 1755.

Twenty years later, when the quarrel between Great Britain and the American colonies was about to break out into war, Washington was appointed commander-in-chief of the colonial army. His task was hard, for his men had neither discipline nor training. Many of them deserted, and Washington found it very hard to keep his army together. The worst time was the

winter of 1777-8, when the American forces were encamped at Valley Forge. There was not enough food and clothing for the men, and there was much illness among them, but Washington shared their hardships and kept the army together somehow. If he had not done so the American rebellion would have ended then. After that winter the Americans did better, and at length the victory over Cornwallis at Yorktown in 1781 ended the fighting.

At the close of the war in 1783 Washington was publicly thanked by the American Congress for what he had done. He refused to take any payment for his services as commander-in-chief, though he accepted repayment of the money he had spent upon equipping the army during the war. The officers of his army were angry because they had not received the pay that had been promised them, and some of them wanted to dismiss the Congress and make Washington King of the United States. They could have done this, but Washington would not allow it. He retired to Mount Vernon, hoping to live there for the rest of his life.

This was not to be. He had done much work for his country and was yet to do much more. It was decided that the United States should be ruled by a president to be elected every four years. There was only one man who was worthy to be chosen first President of the United States—George Washington. At the end of four years he was re-elected, and he might have been President a third time, but he refused.

News of Washington's death in 1799 was received with sorrow not only throughout the United States but also in Great Britain. He was one of the best and greatest men in American history—"first in war, first in peace, first in the hearts of his countrymen."

Napoleon. (1769-1821.) Napoleon Bonaparte was born in Corsica only a year after the island had become a French possession; if he had been born a little earlier he would not have been born a French subject. He became an officer of artillery in the French army, and in 1796, at the age of twenty-seven, he was given command of the army which was to attack the Austrians in Italy. He won some great victories and conquered the province of

Lombardy. Two years later he led an army to Egypt, and though his fleet was destroyed by Nelson at the Battle of the Nile he returned to France as "the conqueror of Egypt." In 1799 he was made ruler of France with the title of First Consul, and in 1804 he took the title of Emperor of the French.

Napoleon had a splendid court in France. He ruled France well; under him the country was much better governed than under the Bourbon kings. He tried to make himself master of Europe, ruling some parts himself and making his brothers kings in some countries. Joseph Bonaparte became King of Spain, Louis Bonaparte King of Holland, and Jerome Bonaparte King of Westphalia. Two of his marshals became kings—Murat in Naples and Bernadotte in Sweden.

If Napoleon had been content to rule France without going to war he would have been one of the greatest men in history. But he was at war with Great Britain during the whole of his reign, and he was frequently fighting other countries as well. He won many victories, but his forces were driven out of Spain by Wellington, and he himself lost more than half a million men in Russia in 1812. He was defeated in the Battle of the Nations in 1813, and in 1814 he was forced to abdicate. He was allowed to live on the island of Elba, in the Mediterranean, with the title of Emperor.

In 1815 he returned to France and was Emperor of the French again for about three months. He was finally defeated at Waterloo by Wellington, and after he had given himself up to the captain of a British warship he was sent to St. Helena, in the South Atlantic, where he died in 1821.

Lincoln. (1809-65.) Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States at the time of the Civil War, was born in the state of Kentucky of poor parents. As a young man he earned his living by tree-felling, store-keeping, and other humble work. He became a lawyer, and was well known as a plain and sensible speaker.

Many people in the United States thought that slavery ought to be abolished, but the slave-owners in the southern states naturally wanted to keep their slaves. A new president was to be chosen in 1860, and the southern states feared that a president



Weaver Smith

NAPOLEON ON BOARD H.M.S. "BELLEROPHON"

who favoured the abolition of slavery might be elected. If that should happen, they intended to break away from the United States and form a separate republic. Lincoln was elected; at that time he had not declared that slavery should be abolished, but he had stated firmly that no state should be allowed to separate itself from the United States. Seven southern states did so, and a Civil War broke out. The seven southern states were slave states, and the states of the north were free states; yet the war did not start on account of slavery. It was a war to compel the southern states to remain in the Union.

During the war Lincoln proclaimed that slavery in the rebel states should be ended, and at the end of the war all slaves were freed. A week after the end of the war Lincoln was murdered in a theatre. He had done great work for his country in keeping it united and abolishing slavery, and he is regarded as one of the greatest of American presidents.

Garibaldi. (1807-82.) Garibaldi was born of poor parents at Nice, and he became a sailor. At that time, Italy was not one kingdom; it included several small states, two of which were ruled by Austria and others by Austrian princes. Garibaldi joined Young Italy, a society formed to try to expel the Austrians from the country and unite it into a single state. He was in a plot to capture the arsenal at Genoa, but the plot was discovered and he was sentenced to death. He escaped to South America in 1836 and lived there for some years, during which time there was fighting in Brazil and Uruguay in which he took part.

In 1848 Garibaldi returned to Italy to fight with his countrymen against the Austrians. He fought in the Battle of Custoza, which the Austrians won, and he escaped to Switzerland. He then went to Rome and helped to set up a republic there. This did not last long, and Garibaldi went to Venice, which was holding out against the Austrians. They recovered Venice but again failed to capture Garibaldi, who crossed the Atlantic again, this time to New York. For some years he kept a tallow-chandler's shop in New York, and when he was able to return to Italy he bought the island of Caprera, intending to live on it as a farmer.

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There was further fighting against the Austrians in 1859, and they lost Lombardy, though they still held Venice. The southern part of Italy, with Sicily, formed the kingdom of the two Sicilies, whose capital was Naples. Sicily was in rebellion against the King of the Two Sicilies, and Garibaldi decided to help the rebels. At Genoa he gathered together a band of 1,150 men who wore red shirts. He promised them no pay, but "blood and toil and tears and sweat," and with his "Thousand" he sailed to Sicily. In spite of the smallness of his force he conquered the island within a few weeks, and then he crossed the Strait of Messina to the mainland of Italy. A large army was drawn up to meet him, and defeat seemed certain, but many of the enemy came over to his side and many others ran away. In a short time he was in Naples and the King had fled. A large part of northern and central Italy had by this time been united under the King of Sardinia, to whom Garibaldi gave up his conquests. He refused all rewards, and taking with him a bag of seeds he returned to his farm on Caprera.

Italy was not yet completely united, as the Austrians still held Venice and Rome was ruled by the Pope. On several occasions Garibaldi tried to capture Rome from the Pope, but he was not successful, perhaps because many Italians did not like the idea of fighting against the Pope. In 1864 Garibaldi visited England, where he was greeted as a hero.

Throughout his life Garibaldi was to be found wherever fighting was going on, and when the Franco-Prussian War broke out he fought for the French against the Germans. Though he was not a Frenchman he was elected to the French National Assembly after the war, but he soon returned to Caprera. He had done much to make Italy one kingdom, and in 1874 the Italian Government granted him a pension.

Lenin. (1870-1924.) Lenin was a Russian Socialist. When he was a young man his brother was put to death for plotting against the Tsar, and he was banished. He returned to Russia, was imprisoned, and then sent to Siberia for three years.

Lenin afterwards lived in several European countries, and

during the European War of 1914-18 he returned to Russia. The Russian armies had been badly beaten by the Germans, and Lenin stirred up the soldiers to revolt against their leaders and against the Tsar. The Tsar was deposed, and a Socialist Government under Kerensky was set up. Lenin plotted against Kerensky, and overthrew him. From that time Lenin's party, the Bolshevik party, was in power, and Lenin was the ruler of Russia until his death.

He had no easy task, for some foreign countries sent expeditions to overthrow the Bolsheviks, and there were risings against them in many parts of Russia. Food was scarce, and for a time there was famine in some parts of the land. But difficulties were overcome; Bolshevik armies beat their enemies, and Russian peasants were set to work ploughing their land again. Before Lenin's death order was restored, though not without cruelty and bloodshed.

The city of St. Petersburg, or Petrograd, was renamed Lenin-grad in honour of Lenin.

Roosevelt. (1882-1945.) Franklin Delano Roosevelt was one of the greatest men in the history of the United States. He became crippled as the result of a disease called infantile paralysis. Most men would wish to live a retired life if they were afflicted in this way, but Roosevelt became President of the United States in 1933 at a very serious time. His country had many millions of unemployed people, and all prosperity seemed to have gone from it.

He began what was known as the New Deal, by which employment was given to a large number of people, and trade grew brisk again. He started a system of old age pensions and insurance against unemployment, and in some other ways he tried to help people who were in need. Within a few years the troubles that had beset the American people when he became President had passed away.

In 1939 war broke out between Great Britain and Germany, and from the first Roosevelt was strongly in favour of Great Britain. The United States was neutral for more than two years,

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but the President helped the British by arranging for the transfer of fifty American destroyers to the British navy and by starting the system of Lease-Lend.

In December, 1941, after the Japanese attack on American ships at Pearl Harbour, Hawaii, the United States entered the war against Germany and Italy as well as against Japan, and under the direction of the President fought in alliance with Great Britain and Russia until the final surrender of Germany and Japan.

Before Roosevelt, no president had been elected for more than two terms, but he was chosen four times. No doubt the American people thought that he was the best man to be at the head of the state in the troubled times through which they were passing. The strain of public affairs was at last too great for him. He died a month before Germany surrendered, though he lived long enough to know that victory was certain and near.

Hitler. (1889-1945.) Adolf Hitler was an Austrian by birth. He studied painting and architecture, and was so poor that he had to work as a house-painter and decorator to support himself. He served in the European War of 1914-18 with the rank of corporal, and was twice wounded.

After the defeat of Germany he resolved to make use of the discontent of the people to overthrow the German republic and ultimately to fight a war of revenge. He started the Nazi party, and in 1923 he organised a rising in Munich. This failed, and Hitler was sentenced to imprisonment for five years, but he was set free after eight months. While he was in prison he wrote a book, *Mein Kampf*, in which his ideas were set out.

Hindenburg was the President of Germany, and when he was due for re-election in 1932 Hitler became a candidate. He was not elected, but he received thirteen million votes to Hindenburg's nineteen million. In the following year Hitler became Chancellor, and, soon afterwards, the building in which the Reichstag (the German Parliament) met was destroyed by fire. Hitler and the Nazis said this was done by the Communists; it is now believed that the fire was caused by the Nazis themselves. From that

time Hitler was dictator in Germany. Concentration camps were established, and Jews and people who opposed the Nazis were sent to these places and were very cruelly treated. Newspapers were not allowed to print anything the Nazis did not like. Germany ceased to be a member of the League of Nations.

During the next few years Hitler prepared for war. A conscript army was raised, a large air force was trained, and a new navy, especially of submarines, was built. Much of this was done in secret, and Hitler often stated that he did not intend to make war.

War broke out in 1939, and Hitler declared that he would set up a New Order in Europe in which Germany should be supreme and all other countries should serve her. For a long time the Germans occupied a great part of Europe, but at length the forces of Great Britain, the United States, and Russia were too strong for them. Germany was invaded, and, rather than fall into the hands of his enemies, Hitler committed suicide.

Chiang Kai-Shek. (1886-) Chiang Kai-Shek, a Chinese general, became President of China in 1928. Civil wars followed, in which Chiang Kai-Shek defeated other Chinese generals. In 1932 the Japanese conquered Manchuria, and from 1937 to 1945 there was war between Japan and China. The Japanese occupied large parts of China, but Chiang Kai-Shek, as commander-in-chief of the Chinese forces, held on.

The defeat of Japan in 1945 was not followed by peace in China. Civil war broke out again. Large Communist armies tried to overthrow the Government of Chiang Kai-Shek. In 1946 a truce was arranged in order that agreement might be reached and peace restored in China, but fighting soon broke out again. Chiang Kai-Shek was driven back, and when the whole of the mainland of China had been overrun by the Communists he withdrew to the island of Formosa.

Madame Chiang Kai-Shek is a member of the Soong family, which was formerly rich and powerful in China. It was largely owing to the Soong influence that Chiang Kai-Shek remained so long in power.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Give three reasons why George Washington should be regarded as a great man.
2. Write a short life of Garibaldi.
3. For what reasons will Franklin Roosevelt be remembered?
4. What events were connected with the following places: (*a*) Fort Duquesne, (*b*) Valley Forge, (*c*) St. Helena, (*d*) Caprera, (*e*) Pearl Harbour?

CHAPTER 28

CANADA

The Conquest of Canada. Canada was conquered from the French in 1759-60. Quebec was taken by Wolfe in 1759; though the French tried to recover it they did not succeed, and when, in 1760, Lord Amherst captured Montreal the conquest of the colony was complete.

Pontiac. The Indians in the colony, who had been friendly with the French, feared that the British would drive them from their hunting grounds, and Pontiac, a chief of the Ottawa tribe, roused other tribes against them. Several forts were attacked and captured by the Indians in 1763 and their garrisons were put to death. In the following year Pontiac was defeated in battle; finding that the French could give him no help he made peace with the British in 1766.

Canada after the Conquest. Canada now stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific and is larger than the United States, though its population is not nearly so great as that of its neighbour. In 1760 it consisted of a few settlements on the banks of the St. Lawrence, with a total population of about 60,000. Nearly all the Canadians were French and Roman Catholic; the only English living in Canada at the time of the conquest were a few hundred traders from the American colonies farther south.

The Quebec Act. By the Quebec Act, passed by the British Parliament in 1774, the Canadians were allowed to follow the Roman Catholic religion, and Canada was to extend as far south as the Ohio and the Mississippi. This Act annoyed the American colonists, many of whom were Puritans; they did not like so much favour being shown to Roman Catholics, and they felt that the Act was shutting their own states in and preventing them from

expanding westwards. But the Act satisfied the Canadians, and when the Americans rebelled against Great Britain in 1776 the Canadians remained loyal, though only a few years had passed since they had been conquered.

Upper and Lower Canada. After the American colonies had won their independence and become the United States many Americans did not wish to live in the new republic. They preferred to remain subjects of the King, and they moved into Canada. But very few of them wished to mingle with the French. Some of them made their homes in New Brunswick, but most of them settled farther up the St. Lawrence, in a province which was called Upper Canada, while the French region became known as Lower Canada. Lower Canada remained French and Roman Catholic; the people of Upper Canada were British, and most of them belonged to the Church of England or were Presbyterians. Until the middle of the nineteenth century Lower Canada had a larger population than Upper Canada.

The Fur-Trading Companies. The region round Hudson Bay contained many trading stations of the Hudson's Bay Company, which had been founded in 1670, in the reign of Charles II. Prince Rupert was one of the founders of the Company, and a great stretch of land round the Bay was (and still is) called Rupertsland. The Company bought furs from the Indians, and it employed its own hunters and trappers as well. Another company, the North-West Fur Company, traded in furs in Upper Canada and in what is now the province of Manitoba, its chief office being at Toronto in Upper Canada. Some of the North-West Company's agents went farther into the interior, and between 1784 and 1787 one of them, Alexander Mackenzie, lived for some years at Fort Chipewyan, on Lake Athabaska, trading in furs with the Indians. In 1789 Mackenzie, with a few Canadians and Indians, set out to explore the north-west, and he followed the course of a river, which has been named the Mackenzie after him, to the Arctic Ocean. They returned to Fort Chipewyan, and in 1792 Mackenzie led an expedition to the

Pacific coast, being the first white man to cross the Rocky Mountains. These journeys led to a big increase in the trade in furs, and in 1802 Mackenzie set up a company of his own as a rival to the North-West Fur Company, but a few years later the two companies were united.

The Red River Settlement. A Scottish nobleman, Lord Selkirk, sent a band of settlers in 1803 to Prince Edward Island, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The settlement prospered and has always been successful. Selkirk then made plans for a bigger settlement in Canada. He owned many shares in the Hudson's Bay Company, which granted him a great stretch of land (forty-five million acres) in what is now Manitoba in Canada and Minnesota in the United States. This was a region in which the North-West Fur Company traded, though the Hudson's Bay Company claimed that it alone had a right to do so. Several bands of men were sent out by Lord Selkirk to this Red River Settlement, and, of course, there was trouble with the men of the North-West Fur Company. Fights occurred, and in 1816, in the Battle of Seven Oaks, the governor appointed by Selkirk was killed with twenty of his men. Selkirk was charged in Upper Canada with having acted unlawfully, and he was fined £2,000. There is no doubt that the trial was unfair, since the judges were members of the North-West Fur Company. In spite of his failure Selkirk deserves to be remembered as one of the men who have tried to build up the British Empire.

The Hudson's Bay Company. The Hudson's Bay Company and the North-West Fur Company united to form a single company in 1821. It was given a monopoly for twenty-one years of the fur trade over the whole region to the Pacific. In 1838 the monopoly was extended for another twenty-one years, but when it expired in 1859 it was not renewed. The Hudson's Bay Company still held its original right to trade in Rupertsland, but in 1869 it gave up its monopoly to the Canadian Government in return for a payment of £300,000. The Company still does a very large trade in furs, but it has no monopoly of the trade.

The Canadian Boundary. When the American colonies became independent in 1783 it was agreed that the Ohio region, which had been part of Canada, should belong to the United States. The boundary between the United States and Canada ran through the Great Lakes, and, as described in another chapter, the boundary in the prairie region was fixed in 1818 at the forty-ninth parallel. It has never been guarded on either side.

Responsible Government. Until 1840 Upper Canada and Lower Canada were ruled as separate provinces, but neither was quite contented. In 1837 rebellions broke out in both provinces. They were put down very easily, but the British Government sent Lord Durham to Canada to find out why the Canadians were discontented. He found that the French and the British in Canada were jealous of each other, and he suggested that the two provinces should be united and should have a Parliament like that of Great Britain. This was done in 1840 by the Reunion Act. The Canadian Parliament made laws and levied taxes, and the ministers who ruled in Canada had to have a majority in the Canadian House of Commons. But the British Government continued to manage the foreign affairs of Canada.

The Dominion of Canada. The population of Canada increased year by year, and some people thought that the United States might try to force Canada into the republic. There was never any real danger of this, but Canadians thought they ought to have a national government for the whole country and not merely for Upper and Lower Canada. In 1867 the British North America Act was passed by the British Parliament to establish the Dominion of Canada. The Dominion contained four provinces; Lower Canada and Upper Canada became separate again, being now known as Quebec and Ontario, and the other provinces were Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. There was to be a Parliament in each province to deal with its own affairs, and a Dominion Parliament for the whole country. The capital was fixed at Ottawa.

Before the Act was passed a conference of Canadian statesmen was held to draw up a constitution for Canada and to decide what

the country should be called. They did not want to call it the colony of Canada. Some of them wished it to be the kingdom of Canada, with Victoria as Queen, but others felt that the United States would not like a kingdom to be set up in North America. At length someone quoted from the seventy-second Psalm: "He shall have dominion also from sea to sea, and from the river unto the ends of the earth." "From sea to sea"—from the Atlantic to the Pacific; "from the river unto the ends of the earth"—from the St. Lawrence to the North Pole. There could be no better description of the boundaries of the country, and Canada became a Dominion.

Manitoba. Manitoba became a province of the Dominion in 1870. Many of its inhabitants were half-breeds—men whose fathers were white men who had married Indian women—who had been employed by the Hudson's Bay Company in the fur trade. They did not like to come under Dominion rule, and they revolted under Louis Riel, but the rebels scattered upon the approach of a force of soldiers under Colonel Wolseley. Riel fled into the United States.

The Canadian Pacific Railway. British Columbia in the far west was separated from the Dominion by hundreds of miles of mountain and prairie. At that time it had no way of communicating with the Dominion except through the United States; even mail-bags had to be sent through the States. British Columbia offered to join the Dominion in 1871 on condition that a railway was built to connect east and west within ten years.

The railway was begun, but progress was slow, and by 1880 less than seven hundred miles of line had been laid down. The people of British Columbia were not satisfied, and as the Dominion did not wish to lose its western province a new company, the Canadian Pacific Railway Company, was formed to complete the work. The Company was given the stretch of line already built; it was given all the land required for the new line, with a belt of land on either side of it; it was allowed to cut all the timber it wanted; and it was given the sum of twenty-five million dollars. Even then it had to borrow money from the Dominion Government

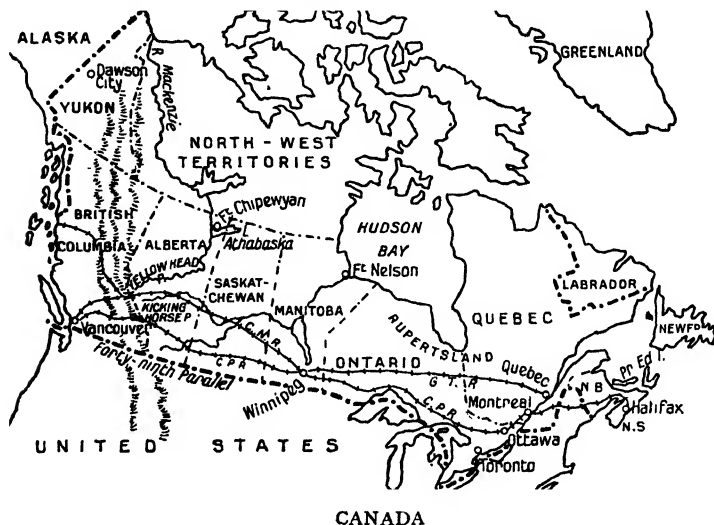
before its work was finished, though it was able to repay the loan within a few years of the opening of the line. On the flat prairies the line was laid easily and quickly, but the engineers had a hard task to carry it across the Rocky Mountains, which they did by the Kicking Horse Pass. The last spike of the last rail was driven home in November, 1885, and the Canadian Pacific Railway was opened for traffic. The Prime Minister and other ministers of the Dominion travelled on the first train to British Columbia. Since that time other railways have been built across Canada, and many branch lines have been constructed. The Canadian National Railway runs parallel to the Canadian Pacific Railway, but farther north; it crosses the Rocky Mountains by the Yellowhead Pass.

Prairie Settlements. The building of these railways and their branches was followed by settlements on the prairies. (It was not possible for men to live on the prairies and grow corn unless they could sell it, and this could not be done until the railways were constructed.) To any man who was willing to settle in the prairie region the Dominion Government gave a piece of land of 160 acres, known as a homestead. The settler had to clear and fence the land and build a house for himself. In this way hundreds of thousands of homesteads were set up, and Canada produced millions of tons of wheat for export to Great Britain. In 1905 the prairie regions of Alberta and Saskatchewan became provinces of the Dominion.

The half-breeds who had taken part in Riel's rebellion in 1870 had fled to the prairies, and they were alarmed at the coming of the settlers. Riel returned from the United States to lead a new revolt. After severe fighting it was put down; Riel was captured and hanged.

The Discovery of Gold. Gold was discovered in the Yukon in 1896, and by 1898 there was a great rush to the diggings. In other parts of the world a gold rush has usually been disorderly; the diggers have been rough and lawless; there has been much drunkenness and gambling; and theft and murder have taken place. Good order was kept in the Yukon by the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, and it was said that life and property were

as safe in Dawson City, the chief town of the Yukon, as in Montreal. The Royal Canadian Mounted Police, the "Riders of the Plains," are very fine men whose duty it is to keep order in all the thinly peopled lands of the north and west. Their proud boast is that "they always get their man."



Canadian Nationality. In the twentieth century it has become clear that Canada is no mere colony of Great Britain but is a nation, and Canadians are proud of their nationality.

Dominion Status. Until 1931 Great Britain still had some authority over Canada, but in that year the Statute of Westminster was passed by the British Parliament. By this law Canada and some other Dominions were declared to be equal to one another and to Great Britain, and the British Parliament no longer had any authority over them. Great Britain and these Dominions formed the British Commonwealth of Nations.

Since 1931 Canada has been a fully independent state. It is in no way subject to Great Britain. Yet it is not foreign to Great

Britain; the Queen is Queen in Canada as well as in Great Britain. No doubt Canada could leave the British Commonwealth of Nations and join the United States or become a separate republic if it wished to do so. But it does not wish to do so. Canadians are loyal to the Queen and they are proud of their connection with Great Britain.

Canada and the Wars. Canada took part in both the great wars of the twentieth century, sending very large forces to fight in Europe and elsewhere. Canada was a member of the League of Nations and has joined the United Nations.

Since the end of the World War of 1939-45 the Canadian Government has shown its friendship with the British people by lending to Great Britain a large sum of money which can be used in the purchase of food and other things needed while the country is recovering from the war.

Newfoundland. Newfoundland is sometimes said to be the oldest English colony because it was discovered by John Cabot in 1497 and a settlement was made by Sir Humphrey Gilbert in 1583. In the seventeenth century the coasts of Newfoundland were used as calling places by the French and English fishing fleets which came every year for cod. The French claimed the island, but in 1713 they admitted that it was British. French fishermen still landed to dry their nets on the shores and to obtain fresh water, and there were frequent quarrels between French and British.

In the nineteenth century the Newfoundland fishermen sold much of their fish in the United States and very little in Canada, since Canadian fishermen caught all that was needed in the Dominion. For this reason Newfoundland was not so friendly with Canada as with the United States and refused to join the Dominion when it was formed. On some later occasions the Canadian Government was willing to receive Newfoundland as a province of the Dominion, but the island colony preferred to remain outside.

When the Statute of Westminster was passed in 1931 Newfoundland became an independent Dominion. But its trade and

industry were declining, many of its people were unemployed, and before long it had to ask Great Britain for help. In 1933 it ceased to be a Dominion and a Governor was appointed by Great Britain. But the British Government intended to restore constitutional rule in Newfoundland as soon as the colony again became self-supporting.

With the development of aerial travel across the Atlantic prosperity returned to Newfoundland. Its position made it an ideal base for trans-Atlantic flights; it lay farther east than any other part of North America except Greenland. Most of the aircraft which crossed the Atlantic took off from or landed in Newfoundland, and large numbers of people were employed on the airfields.

At length the question of the future government of Newfoundland had to be settled, and the people were invited to vote either for a continuance of British rule, or for Dominion Status (as in 1931), or for admission into the Dominion of Canada. The majority preferred the island to become part of Canada, and in April, 1949, Newfoundland became the tenth province of the Dominion.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Why did the French Canadians not join with the Americans against Great Britain in the War of Independence?

2. For what are the following men noted: (a) Louis Riel, (b) Pontiac, (c) Lord Selkirk, (d) Lord Durham, (e) Alexander MacKenzie?

3. Which provinces formed the Dominion of Canada in 1867, and which have been added to it since? Why was it called a Dominion?

4. Write an account of the building of the Canadian Pacific Railway.

5. Write four or five lines about each of the following: (a) the Royal Canadian Mounted Police, (b) the Hudson's Bay Company, (c) Kicking Horse Pass, (d) homesteads in Canada.

6. Why was Newfoundland not prosperous a few years ago, and why has the island recovered its prosperity?

CHAPTER 29

AUSTRALIA

Why Settlements were made. The story of the discovery of Australia by Tasman and the exploration of its coasts by Cook and Flinders has been told in a previous chapter.

Australia might not have been settled by the British if the American colonies had not been lost. In the eighteenth century men who were found guilty of serious crimes were often sentenced to death, and if their lives were spared they were transported overseas to work as slaves for a period of years, and sometimes for life. Before the War of American Independence many of them were sent to Virginia and the Carolinas, but this could not be done after the United States had become independent. The British Government did not know what to do with the convicts. For a time they were kept on ships, known as hulks, in some of the harbours, and were put to work on building docks and breakwaters. Sir Joseph Banks, who was with Captain Cook on his first voyage, proposed that a settlement should be made at Botany Bay in New South Wales and that convicts should be sent to it.

The First Settlement. In 1787 a small fleet of ships, with seven hundred convicts on board and two hundred marines to guard them, sailed for Australia under the command of Captain Arthur Phillip. The fleet reached Botany Bay in January, 1788, but Captain Phillip did not think it a good place for the settlement, and the ships sailed farther along the coast to Port Jackson, where Sydney now stands. Here the convicts were landed and the first settlement was made. It was only just in time; a fortnight after Phillip's arrival two French ships arrived at Port Jackson, and if the British had not been there they might have taken possession. The French ships sailed away and were lost at sea.

The Convicts. A new settlement needed good and skilful workers, men who understood farming and building and road-making. Most of the convicts were not skilful at anything but stealing, and they did not like work. They were idle and could



BOTANY BAY

be kept in order only by the fear of being flogged. For the slightest offence a man would be given a "Botany Bay dozen" (twenty-five lashes), and far heavier punishments were often inflicted. The colony did not prosper at first. It was sometimes at the point of starvation, and food had to be brought from India. Several years passed before New South Wales produced enough food for its people.

The Aborigines. The black men of Australia are not called natives, like the inhabitants of other newly settled lands, but aborigines. (Native Australians are white men born in Australia.)

The aborigines were known to the settlers as blackfellows, and they were too few in number to hinder the white men or to make

war on them (except in Tasmania), as the Red Indians did in North America or the Maori in New Zealand. They lived in tribes, and their huts were very rough and poor. They did not till the ground, but lived by hunting. In their languages they could



AUSTRALIAN ABORIGINES

count one, two, three, or sometimes four, though they often said two-two instead of four. For five, or any larger number, they used a word meaning "many." Yet they could use the boomerang, a weapon which when thrown at a bird would return to its owner, and they were very skilful in tracking.

Bushrangers. From its early days New South Wales was troubled by bushrangers, who were escaped convicts. These men worked in bands which lived by robbing and murdering lonely travellers. The country was so large, and soldiers and police so few, that it was very difficult to catch them, and they continued



BOOMERANGS

till the middle of the nineteenth century and even later. Sometimes blackfellows were employed by the police to track them.

Free Settlers and Convicts. For many years there were not many free settlers in New South Wales. When a convict had completed his sentence he was set free. He had been brought to Australia, but he was not taken back to England; if he wished to return he was not forbidden to do so, but he had to pay for his passage home. If he remained in Australia he was given a farm of a hundred and fifty acres. These grants of land were given also to soldiers and marines who had completed their term of service in New South Wales. The earliest free settlers, therefore, were time-expired convicts and soldiers, together with a few free men from England.

Free settlers were allowed to have convicts to work for them. This sometimes had a curious result, as is shown by the story of a wealthy man who had committed a crime for which he was transported. His wife followed him to Sydney, where she had a house built, and then she asked for a convict to act as her butler. A line of men was drawn up and she was invited to pick one out. She selected her husband, of course without stating who he was. He was thus able to live in comfort with his wife.

Sheep. One of the free settlers, John Macarthur, thought it would be possible to rear sheep in Australia for the sake of their wool. He tried several different kinds of sheep, importing them from the Cape of Good Hope and from England, and in 1805 he was given five thousand (afterwards increased to ten thousand) acres of land for pasture and was allowed to employ thirty convicts as shepherds. Other men established sheep runs, and much of the land between the Blue Mountains and the coast was used as pasture.

Squatters and Settlers. The Blue Mountains were steep, and it was not until 1813, twenty-five years after the beginning of the colony, that they were crossed by a white man. In that year Gregory Blaxland crossed the range and found vast stretches of pasture land in the interior.

The Government of New South Wales at first did not wish free settlers to go so far inland, since it would not be easy to keep order there, but, in spite of this, sheep runs were established on the other side of the range. The sheep farmers, known as squatters,



Australian Government Photo

A NEW SOUTH WALES SHEEP RUN

did not buy the land, but they were allowed to use it for pasture on condition of giving it up when it was wanted for settlement. On these sheep runs large quantities of wool were produced every year to be sent to England, where it was made into cloth in the factories of Yorkshire.

As more people came to New South Wales more land was cultivated, and settlers went farther inland. They tried to obtain some of the land held by squatters, and fights sometimes occurred between settlers and squatters. It should be understood that settlers bought their land in order to plough it and grow crops on it, while, as stated above, squatters grazed sheep on their land

without buying it and were expected to give it up if it was wanted by settlers. If a squatter had ten thousand acres and a settler claimed two hundred acres to be turned into a farm it might seem that the squatter could give up this amount of land without losing very much. But the settler would pick pieces of land round the water-holes, and the rest of the sheep run, being without water, would be worthless. This was called "picking the eyes out of a sheep run." If the settler were found shot dead one day nobody would be surprised.

As the settlers increased in number some of the squatters had to move farther into the interior, but on the whole they held their own, since the land was more suitable for sheep than for corn.

New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland. As the years passed there were far more free men than convicts in New South Wales. The free colonists did not like convicts being sent there, and in 1840 transportation to New South Wales was stopped.

At that time New South Wales included the whole of the eastern half of Australia, and settlements had been made at Brisbane, farther north than Sydney, and at Port Phillip, in the south. Convicts were sent to Brisbane but not to Port Phillip (which was soon named Melbourne, after Lord Melbourne, Prime Minister of Great Britain). In the middle of the nineteenth century three colonies were formed out of New South Wales. The middle part retained the old name of New South Wales; the others were named after the Queen. The northern colony became Queensland, with Brisbane as its capital, and the southern became Victoria, whose capital was Melbourne. As had already been done in Canada, New South Wales and Victoria were given self-government in 1855 and Queensland in 1859. Each colony had a Parliament chosen by the people; ministers had to be supported by a majority in Parliament; and the Parliament of Great Britain retained the right of making laws for the colony, though it did so very rarely.

The Discovery of Gold. In 1851 gold was found at Bathurst in New South Wales and at Ballarat and Bendigo in Victoria. There was a wild rush to the diggings. Men left their farms and sheep

runs in the open country, their ships in harbour, and their shops and offices in towns, all eager to get rich quickly. Many more came from other countries, and the population of the two colonies increased very fast. As trade fell off and some of the land was



AUSTRALIA

not cultivated the price of food rose rapidly, and much more money was made on the goldfields by storekeepers than by diggers.

Tasmania. Before this time settlements had been made in other parts of Australia. Convicts were sent to Tasmania in 1803, and free settlers followed. Hobart became a port from which ships sailed far south for whales and seals. The aborigines of Tasmania

made war on the settlers, and a great effort was made to destroy them. A line of white men was formed across the island, and as it moved forward many of the black men were killed, though some escaped.

Western Australia. Captain James Stirling, a naval officer, who visited the west coast of Australia, proposed that a colony should be established there, since, if it were not done by the British, it was likely to be done by the French. In 1829 the Swan River Settlement began, and to attract settlers it was announced that those who came to the colony might buy land for one shilling and sixpence per acre. This was a mistake, since people bought very large estates, and some of them obtained very large grants without paying anything at all. These estates were worthless, since there were no labourers to work on them. Any labourer who came to the Swan River Settlement could earn high wages with which he soon bought land and became a landowner instead of a labourer. The estates were scattered, and there were no roads. Some of the landowners left the colony after selling their estates for as little as threepence per acre. Labour was so scarce that the settlers asked the British Government to send convicts to Western Australia, as the Swan River Settlement was now called, and this was done from 1849 to 1868. Later in the nineteenth century gold was discovered at Coolgardie and Kalgoorlie.

South Australia. The first settlement in South Australia was at Adelaide in 1836. (The queen of William IV was named Adelaide.) Land had been given away or sold very cheaply in Western Australia; in South Australia it was to be sold at a higher price. The money received might be used to help labourers to go out to the colony, and these men would have to work for some years before they would be able to buy farms for themselves. In this way it was hoped that there would be plenty of workers in the colony. But it was forgotten that men would not be willing to pay a pound per acre for land in South Australia while they could buy it for one and sixpence or less per acre in Western Australia. After a few years, however, the colony became prosperous.

The Commonwealth of Australia. Australia thus contained six separate colonies, and it seemed possible that they might unite in some way, as Canada had done. But they were not very close to one another. Although the map shows them as touching one another, in reality most of the people of each colony lived near its capital, and these capitals were hundreds of miles apart. The colonies were not friendly towards one another; they did not try to increase trade with one another, and when railways were built each colony had its own gauge, so that trains could not run from one capital to another.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century many Australians favoured the idea of a federation of the colonies, and at last all of them agreed to it. The Australian Commonwealth Act was passed by the British Parliament in 1900, and the Commonwealth came into existence on the first day of the twentieth century. For a time its capital was at Sydney, until a new capital was built at Canberra.

Dominion Status. When the Statute of Westminster was passed in 1931 the Commonwealth of Australia became one of the Dominions of the British Commonwealth of Nations which were declared to be equal to Great Britain and to one another. Australia has never shown any desire to break away from the British Commonwealth of Nations. The Queen is Queen in Australia as well as in Great Britain, and Australians are entirely loyal.

Australia and the Wars. In both the wars of the twentieth century Australians did their full share of the fighting. The Commonwealth was a member of the League of Nations, and it has joined the United Nations. After the end of the World War of 1939-45 Australians made large gifts of food to the British people to help them in the troubled times which followed the war, and early in 1947 the Australian Government made a gift of £25,000,000 to Great Britain.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Write a short account of the Australian aborigines.
2. What mistakes were made in the early settlement of (a) Western Australia, (b) South Australia?
3. For what are the following men famous in Australian history: (a) John Macarthur, (b) Captain Phillip, (c) Captain Stirling, (d) Sir Joseph Banks, (e) Matthew Flinders?
4. Why were the Australian colonies slow to unite in the Commonwealth?
5. Write four or five lines on each of the following: (a) bush-rangers, (b) squatters, (c) discoveries of gold, (d) Australian railways.

CHAPTER 30

NEW ZEALAND

Captain Cook. The coast of New Zealand was carefully mapped by Captain Cook on his first voyage, and many of its capes, bays, and islands were named by him. Most of the names were suitable, though he made one or two mistakes; the land round Poverty Bay is more fertile than that of the Bay of Plenty.

Early History. The early history of New Zealand is concerned with traders, whalers, runaway convicts—and missionaries, besides the Maori. Most of the Maori, the native inhabitants of New Zealand, lived in North Island. They were a very intelligent and warlike race, which could not be treated as unimportant if settlements were made. Not long after the first settlement in New South Wales, whaling ships and trading ships visited New Zealand. Traders settled on North Island and gave muskets and gunpowder and rum to the Maori in exchange for native weapons and mats and even heads. (These things could be sold for high prices in England.) There was no government in New Zealand, and when the first missionary, Samuel Marsden, visited North Island in 1814 he found a very bad state of affairs. The white men were nearly all bad characters, and they were making the Maori as bad as themselves. Marsden worked for many years among the Maori, not only in converting some of them to Christianity, but in educating them and teaching them various industries. He and other missionaries wanted Great Britain to annex the islands and set up a proper government, but for many years it refused to do so.

Annexation. In 1839 a New Zealand Company was formed in Great Britain to make a settlement in New Zealand. It was feared that the French would annex the islands, and Captain

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Hobson was sent there from New South Wales. He landed on North Island in 1840 and took possession of New Zealand in the name of the Queen, and when he learned that the French were likely to land on South Island he sent Captain Stanley to Akaroa



Photo: High Commissioner for New Zealand

MAORI

to claim the island. The French arrived a few days too late, as they had done in New South Wales half a century earlier.

The Treaty of Waitangi. In 1840 Captain Hobson held a great meeting with Maori chiefs at Waitangi. They were told that New Zealand would be ruled by the Queen and that they would be protected and treated fairly. Land would not be taken from them for nothing. The Government would buy it from them, and they were not to sell it to the settlers, who were to buy it only from the Government. This was carefully explained to the Maori by the missionaries, and the chiefs agreed to it. If these

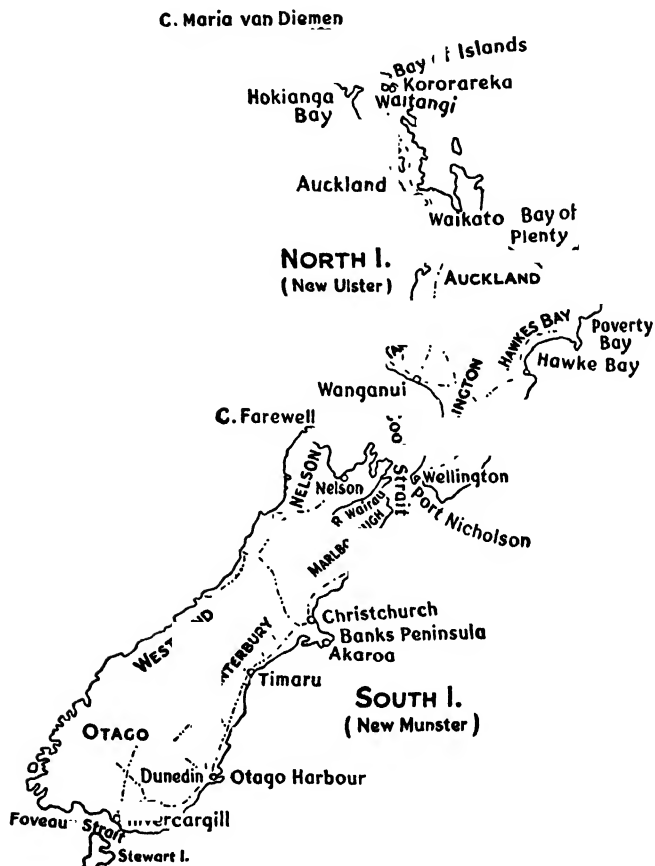
terms had been kept there would have been no wars with the Maori.

The Maori Wars. The Treaty of Waitangi was not kept. The New Zealand Company bought land from Maori chiefs instead of from the Government. The Maori regarded land as belonging to the tribe and not to the chief, and when the Company took possession of land which it had bought from a chief the tribe thought it was being robbed of its land. It sometimes happened that a stretch of land was claimed by more than one tribe and was sold several times by different chiefs.

This led to trouble between British and Maori, and a number of white men were murdered. A flagstaff on which the British flag was flying was cut down by Maori and upon being restored was cut down a second and a third time. Troops were sent from New South Wales, but the Maori defeated them, and Captain Robert Fitzroy, the Governor at that time, was about to give in to the Maori and make peace with them. Before he could do this he was replaced by a better man, Captain George Grey, who defeated the tribes who were making war and promised that all the Maori should have fair treatment. He stopped the illegal buying and selling of land, and peace was restored. While he was Governor of New Zealand he often visited the Maori, whose language he learned, and they liked and trusted him.

A second Maori War broke out in 1860, and Grey was re-appointed Governor in 1861. British and New Zealand troops were employed against the natives, who were not finally put down till 1871. Since then there has been no further native rising.

Responsible Government. The population of New Zealand was not large, but it was growing, and in 1852 it was decided that a Parliament should be established similar to those in other British possessions overseas. The country would be ruled by ministers who had a majority in Parliament. The British Parliament retained the right to make laws for New Zealand, but it very rarely did so. The New Zealand Parliament was established in 1855,



and in 1867 the Maori were given the right to send four members to it.

New Zealand is separated from Australia by 1200 miles of sea, and though it was invited to join the Commonwealth of Australia it declined to do so. It was given the title of Dominion in 1907.

Dominion Status. When the Statute of Westminster was passed in 1931 New Zealand was one of the Dominions which were recognised as equal to one another and to Great Britain. New Zealand is thus, like Canada and Australia, an independent member of the British Commonwealth of Nations, which it could leave but which it has no wish to leave.

New Zealand and the Wars. With other Dominions, New Zealand took its full share in the two wars of the twentieth century. It was a member of the League of Nations and it has joined the United Nations. Early in 1947 the Government of New Zealand made a gift of £10,000,000 to Great Britain to assist her in the difficult times which followed the war of 1939-45.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What classes of white men visited or settled in New Zealand before it became a British colony?
2. For what are the following men famous in the history of New Zealand: (a) Samuel Marsden, (b) Captain Hobson, (c) Captain Grey?
3. What were the terms of the Treaty of Waitangi?
4. What were the causes of the first Maori War?

CHAPTER 31

SOUTH AFRICA

Discovery and Settlement. The Cape of Good Hope was discovered by Bartholomew Diaz, a Portuguese captain, in 1486. The Portuguese made no settlement there, but their ships to and from India called at Table Bay to take in food and fresh water.

In the seventeenth century Dutch ships called there also, and the Dutch made the first settlement in South Africa in 1652. For some time the only people who lived at the Cape were servants of the Dutch East India Company, but in the eighteenth century other Dutchmen went there and established farms in the interior. These men were called Boers.

The Cape was captured by the British in 1806, and it was retained by them when peace was made at the end of the Napoleonic War. In the years following the war a number of British people went to South Africa and founded Port Elizabeth and Grahamstown. For some time British and Boers were friendly towards each other.

Boers and Natives. South Africa contained a large native population. Many of the Bushmen and Hottentots had been enslaved by the Boers, and South Africa became a country in which the white men, British and Boers, were masters, while rough work was done by the black men, whether free or slaves. The Kaffirs, a race living farther inland, were too warlike to allow themselves to be enslaved.

Missionaries from Great Britain went to South Africa, and they took the part of the natives against their Boer owners. They sent home tales of cruelty of the Boers towards their slaves—and this was at a time when the people of Great Britain were feeling very strongly that slavery was an evil thing that ought to

be abolished. It was not realised that Boer farmers lived very lonely lives; a farm was always several miles from its nearest neighbour, and at any time it might be attacked by a band of black men and the farmer and his family be murdered. The Boers felt that they could be safe only by treating the black people harshly and keeping them in subjection. Nevertheless, the missionaries were kindly men who hated cruelty; they were trying to obtain a better and happier life for the black men, and they succeeded. In 1833 slavery was abolished in every part of the British Empire, and though the Boers claimed that their slaves were worth three million pounds they received less than half that sum.

Discontent of the Boers. This was not the only thing which led the Boers to dislike British rule. The English language, instead of Dutch, had become the language of the colony, and English law was enforced. In 1828 free natives, known as the Cape Coloured Folk, were given the same rights as white men, and after 1833 this applied to all natives. The Boers, who looked down upon coloured people, were angry that they should have equal rights.

In 1834 the colony was attacked by Kaffirs, who killed many people and burned many farmhouses before they were driven out. After the Kaffir War the Governor, Sir Benjamin D'Urban, annexed a fresh stretch of territory which gave the colony a better boundary; it would thus be easier to keep the Kaffirs out. This satisfied the Boers, but the British Government would not sanction what D'Urban had done, and the Boers became more discontented than ever.

The Great Trek. Many of the Boers resolved to abandon their homes and go farther inland, and the Great Trek began in 1836. Hundreds of Boer families packed their goods into waggons drawn by oxen and moved far into the interior over country in which there were no roads. Some of them crossed the Orange River and founded the Orange Free State; others went still farther and crossed the Vaal River into a land which became the Transvaal;

yet others moved north-eastwards into Natal. The British followed and took possession of Natal, and many of the Natal Boers went on into the Orange Free State and the Transvaal.

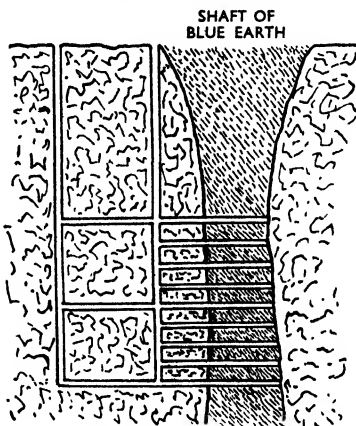
*Weaver Smith*

THE GREAT TREK

British and Boer States. From this time there were four states in South Africa—Cape Colony, Natal, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal, and there were Boers in all of them, with British in Cape Colony and Natal. For some time the British Govern-

ment was undecided whether to annex the Orange Free State and the Transvaal or to leave them alone. It was felt that the black men needed to be protected from the cruelty of the Boers and that the Boers might need protection from Kaffir or Zulu attacks. It was at length decided to leave them alone, and for a quarter of a century the Transvaal and the Orange Free State were independent republics.

The Discovery of Diamonds. Diamonds were found in Griqualand West, on the border of the Orange Free State, in 1870. There was a rush to the diggings, and the mining town of Kimberley sprang up. Diamonds are found in blue earth, which exists in shafts which go down into the earth; tunnels are cut to reach the blue earth. A diamond mine is thus not unlike a coal mine. The blue earth is dug out and raised to the surface and spread out in the open air. After a time it is washed, and a large number of pebbles are left; some of these are diamonds. It would be easy



for the workmen, who are natives, to steal some of the diamonds, and for that reason they are searched very thoroughly every time they leave work. To make theft more difficult, diamonds may be bought only from dealers who have a licence to sell them, and a very long sentence of imprisonment may be imposed on any one who buys them in any other way. It was at first thought that the number of diamonds to be obtained would not be large, but further discoveries of blue earth were made, and the supply of diamonds is now regarded as unlimited.

Among the early diggers was a young man, Cecil Rhodes, who made a large fortune. Companies were formed to work the mines, and within a few years Rhodes managed to unite them

into one company, the De Beers Company, which now controls the whole output from the Kimberley region. It will not sell too many stones at one time, lest their value should fall.



Weaver Smith

A ZULU WARRIOR

The Zulus. In 1877 the Zulus were threatening to attack the Transvaal, which was annexed by the British Government in order to protect the Boers. A Zulu War occurred in 1879. The Zulus were fine warriors; their impiis, or regiments, marched and charged with a discipline like that of the British army. Although

they gained a victory over a small body of British troops at Isandhlwana they were defeated at Ulundi.

The First Boer War. After their defeat at Ulundi there was no further danger from the Zulus, and the Boers wished to be independent again. They made war upon the British in 1881 and defeated them at Majuba Hill. Further troops were sent to South Africa, but before they arrived Gladstone, the Prime Minister of Great Britain, decided to grant independence to the Boers.

The Discovery of Gold. Gold was discovered in the Transvaal, and in 1886 the Rand was opened as a public goldfield. A gold rush followed, but it was found that the ore was of low-grade quality. A ton of ore (which was called conglomerate) contained about half an ounce or less of gold, and this was in tiny specks. The ore was crushed and ground into powder, and the gold was extracted by using certain chemicals. The crushing and grinding could not be done without machinery, which a digger by himself could not provide. The gold mines in the Transvaal were all worked by companies which employed thousands of people.

The Outlanders. Most of the people who worked in the gold mines were either natives or British. The British in the Transvaal were called Outlanders by the Boers. The President of the Transvaal was Paul Kruger, an old man who had been a boy at the time of the Great Trek. Kruger arranged taxation in the Transvaal in such a way that nearly all of it was paid by the Outlanders, and hardly any by the Boer farmers. Yet the Transvaal was ruled by the Boers and not by the Outlanders.

The Jameson Raid. In 1889 the British South Africa Company was formed by Cecil Rhodes, and it obtained the vast stretches of country known as Rhodesia. In 1890 Rhodes became Prime Minister of Cape Colony. He hoped to unite the whole of South Africa into one big state, but Kruger wanted the Boer republics to remain independent. Some of the Boers thought that Rhodes's

plan was the better, and it might have succeeded if Rhodes and his friends had not done a very foolish thing.

At the end of 1895 Dr. Jameson, an official of the British South Africa Company, gathered a few hundreds of mounted men—settlers and police—and invaded the Transvaal, hoping to overthrow Kruger and his Government. The raid failed, and the raiders were captured by the Boers. Rhodes was believed to have known that the raid was to take place, and he was forced to resign his position as Prime Minister of Cape Colony. Jameson was given up to the British Government and was sent to prison.

The Second Boer War. The Boers had now defeated the British twice—at Majuba Hill and in the Jameson Raid—and this made them think that British soldiers were not such good fighters as Boer farmers. They even thought that they could drive the British out of South Africa altogether, and in 1899 the Second South African War began. The Boers invaded Cape Colony and Natal and gained some victories, since the British, as usual, were not ready for a war. The Boers besieged Kimberley, Ladysmith, and Mafeking, but they did not capture any of them. (Mafeking was defended by Colonel Baden-Powell, who in after years was the founder of the Boy Scouts.) Large forces were sent out from Great Britain, and troops were sent from Canada, Australia, and New Zealand as well. The Boers were ultimately defeated, and in May, 1902, the two Boer republics were annexed. The Boers were treated well by the British. They were not called upon to pay for the war, and the British Government gave money to restore railway lines and rebuild bridges and restock farms.

Responsible Government. Cape Colony had been given self-government with its own Parliament in 1872 and Natal in 1893, though, as in Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, the Parliament at Westminster did not give up all its rights over the colonies. Parliaments were set up in the Transvaal in 1906, only four years after the end of the South African War, and in 1907 in the Orange Free State (which at this time was called the Orange River Colony). Thus, five years after they had been beaten the Boers were given

self-government. It remained to be seen whether they would remain loyal or whether the old hatred of the British would break out and they would try to make themselves independent. It was a very bold thing for Great Britain to put so much trust in



the Boers so soon after the war. They proved themselves worthy of it, and in the following years all but a very few remained loyal.

The Union of South Africa. By 1907 each of the four colonies in South Africa had its own Parliament, but they were still separate colonies. Many South Africans, both British and Boer, remembered Rhodes's idea of a united country and hoped to bring it about. In 1910 the four colonies joined together in the Union of South Africa, which came into existence exactly eight

years after the end of the South African War. The four colonies gave up their separate Parliaments, and a single Parliament met at Cape Town. The four colonies became provinces of the Union, and the Orange River Colony resumed its former name, Orange Free State.

Boers and British in the Union. Since its formation the Union has had five Prime Ministers—Botha, Hertzog, Smuts, Malan, and Strijdom. The first three were Boer generals who fought against the British in the South African War. None of them tried to set up an independent republic in South Africa while he was Prime Minister, though Hertzog declared himself in favour of it after he had resigned.

Dominion Status. The Statute of Westminster declared South Africa to be one of the Dominions of the British Commonwealth of Nations, equal to the other Dominions and to Great Britain.

South Africa and the Wars. The outbreak of the European War of 1914-18 gave a chance to the few discontented Boers to rebel against the Union, and a rebellion broke out under a former Boer general, De Wet. It was crushed by a South African army of British and Boers under General Botha. South Africa took its share of the fighting in both the twentieth-century wars and after the earlier war it was given charge of the former German South-West Africa. This did not become part of the Union but was ruled by the Union.

South Africa was a member of the League of Nations, and it has joined the United Nations.

In 1946 South Africa made a gift of nearly a million pounds to be spent for the benefit of the people of Great Britain.

Apartheid. Dr. Malan, who was Prime Minister, resolved to enforce a policy of *apartheid* (separation of races) in South Africa. Only one-fifth of the people of South Africa are of European (British or Dutch) origin; the remainder are mostly

African, though there are some Indians. Malan wished to impose restrictions on the coloured people so as to ensure, for all time, the supremacy of the white population. He retired from the South African premiership in November, 1954, and was succeeded by Mr. Strijdom, who was pledged to continue the policy of *apartheid*.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Mention four of the native races of South Africa, and state what you know about each of them.
2. For what reasons did the Boers dislike British rule in the ten years before the Great Trek?
3. Give accounts of the working of (a) the diamond mines, and (b) the gold mines, in South Africa.
4. Write four or five lines on each of the following: (a) Outlanders, (b) the Great Trek, (c) impis, (d) the Cape Coloured Folk, (e) the British South African Company.
5. For what are the following men remembered in the history of South Africa: (a) Jameson, (b) Hertzog, (c) Kruger, (d) Baden-Powell, (e) De Wet, (f) Botha, (g) Smuts?

TIME CHART

THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS

	<i>Military Rule</i>	<i>Crown Colony</i>	<i>Responsible Government</i>	<i>Federation (or Union)</i>	<i>Dominion Status</i>
1760	— 1760 Canada				
		— 1774 Canada			
	— 1788 N. S. W.				
1800	— 1806 Cape Colony				
		— 1823 N. S. W.			
		— 1829 W. A.			
		— 1833 Cape Colony			
		— 1836 S. A.			
		— 1840 N. Z.	— 1840 Canada		
		— 1845 Natal			
1850			— 1855 N. S. W., Victoria, N. Z., Newfound- land		
			— 1856 S. A., Tasmania		
			— 1859 Queensland		
				— 1867 Canada	
			— 1872 Cape Colony		
			— 1890 W. A.		
			— 1893 Natal		
1900					

TIME CHART

THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS (*continued*)

	<i>Military Rule</i>	<i>Crown Colony</i>	<i>Responsible Government</i>	<i>Federation (or Union)</i>	<i>Dominion Status</i>
1900		— 1902 Transvaal, Orange River Colony	— 1906 Transvaal — 1907 Orange River Colony	— 1901 Australia — 1910 South Africa	— 1931 Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa
			— 1946 Ceylon		— 1947 India Pakistan — 1948 Ceylon
1950					— 1957 Ghana Malaya

CHAPTER 32

THE WEST INDIES

Discovery. The West Indies consist of a large number of islands off the coast of Central America. When Columbus made his voyages across the Atlantic at the end of the fifteenth century he touched at several of the islands before he reached the American mainland, and it was because he thought he had reached the south-east of Asia that he called them the Indies. It was after his mistake had been discovered that they became known as the West Indies.

European Settlements. During the sixteenth century the Spanish made settlements on the larger islands and on some of the smaller, but it was not till the seventeenth century that other nations tried to found colonies in the West Indies. During the seventeenth century British, French, Dutch, and Danes took possession of West Indian islands, so that all the nations of Western Europe except the Portuguese had colonies in that part of the world.

Slavery. The white settlers did not go there to work; the climate was too hot for hard work by the white men, and slaves were employed. At first the Spanish tried to enslave the natives, but the Caribs were warlike and fought against the white men. Negroes were brought across the Atlantic from Africa, and the slave trade began.

Sugar. At first the islands were used for growing tobacco, indigo, and cotton, but about 1650 the sugar-cane was introduced, and the sugar crop soon became very important. During the European wars of the eighteenth century many of the islands were

captured and recaptured again and again. Every country of Western Europe was anxious to keep its West Indian islands so as to be sure of its supply of sugar. Many islands were taken from the French by the British during the Seven Years War, and



when peace was made in 1763 some of the captured islands were restored to France. There was a great outcry against this in Great Britain; it was felt that by keeping all the captured islands the British could have deprived the French of sugar or compelled them to buy it at any price fixed by Great Britain.

Bermuda. The earliest British West Indian settlement was on Bermuda in 1612. (Bermuda is far out in the Atlantic and is not always regarded as belonging to the West Indies.) Sir George

Somers, on a voyage to the West Indies in 1609, was wrecked on Bermuda, and during the winter he and his men built a small ship from the timbers of the wreck. They reached Virginia in the spring of 1610, but Bermuda was not forgotten, and a colony was begun there in 1612 which has never been conquered by an enemy and has prospered to the present day.

St. Kitts. Sir Thomas Warner visited the island of St. Christopher, which is often called St. Kitts, in 1623, and he began a settlement there in the following year. The Caribs of the island attacked the settlers, who killed them off in the fighting. The number of Englishmen was not large; there was some danger that Caribs from other islands might come to avenge the slain, and when a French ship visited the island Warner invited the crew to settle there. They did so, and St. Kitts was divided between English and French, who acted together in beating off Carib attacks. A year or two later St. Kitts suffered from Spanish attacks, and during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there were frequent quarrels between British and French, sometimes one and sometimes the other conquering the whole island.

Barbados. Barbados was visited in 1625 by Captain John Powell, who found it uninhabited and took possession of it by putting up a board with the notice, "James, King of England and this island." Settlement was begun soon afterwards, and Barbados became one of the most important of the British West Indies. It has never been lost to an enemy.

Jamaica. Many other islands in the West Indies became British colonies during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The most important of these was Jamaica. In 1655 an expedition under General Venables and Admiral Penn was sent by Cromwell to attack Spanish colonies. It was not very glorious; the men were not well-trained soldiers like those of the New Model Army, and in an attack on Haiti (Hispaniola) they turned and ran away from the Spanish. They had better luck at Jamaica, which contained few Spaniards, and the island was captured.

The Buccaneers. In the second half of the seventeenth century Jamaica was the headquarters of the buccaneers. Some of them were French and Dutch, but the greater number were British seamen who had taken to piracy, attacking Spanish ships and

*Weaver Smith*

THE SACK OF PANAMA BY THE BUCCANEERS

settlements. In 1671 Henry Morgan led a great force of buccaneers against the city of Panama and destroyed it. In after years efforts were made to suppress the buccaneers. Some of them left the sea and settled on the islands, Morgan being appointed Governor of Jamaica, but many years passed before the last of the buccaneers disappeared.

The Bahamas. The Bahamas were not occupied till the middle of the seventeenth century, and for many years the inhabitants were more notable for piracy than for honest work. One of the islands was the headquarters of a very well-known pirate, Captain Teach (Blackbeard), who was killed in a fight with two King's ships. In later years cotton was

grown on the Bahamas. After the War of American Independence some of the Loyalists left the United States and settled on the islands.



Weaver Smith

WALKING THE PLANK

Trinidad. Trinidad was a Spanish colony until its capture by the British. In 1796, at a time when Great Britain and Spain were not at war, a British warship, the *Alarm*, visited Port of Spain, the chief town of Trinidad, in search of French pirates. Some British seamen landed, and fighting took place in the

streets of the port. Soon afterwards, Spain declared war against Great Britain. Trinidad was captured by the British, and when peace was made in 1802 the island was retained by Great Britain.

The Abolition of Slavery. In the West Indies during the eighteenth century slave labour was employed by the planters of all nations. As described in another chapter, the feeling that slavery was wicked and cruel was growing in Great Britain. The slave trade was forbidden by Great Britain in 1807, and in 1815 other countries agreed to abolish it. After these dates the planters could buy no more negroes from Africa and had to rely upon those born on the plantations. In 1833 Great Britain abolished slavery itself throughout the British Empire. France and Holland abolished it a few years later, but Spain kept slaves in her colonies till 1886.

West Indian Depression. The ending of slavery was a great blow to the West Indies. The freed negroes were idle, and many of them preferred living in poverty to working for wages on the plantations. In the nineteenth century sugar was produced in Europe from beetroots, and there was less need for West Indian cane-sugar. Many of the sugar estates were abandoned.

West Indian Prosperity. The West Indies recovered their prosperity in the twentieth century. Many more ships visited the islands after the opening of the Panama Canal. On some of the islands new crops were grown. In the days of slavery the chief product of the West Indies was sugar, though some cotton, tobacco, and indigo were grown. At the present time bananas and oranges, limes and pineapples, coffee and cocoa and rice are grown and sent to Europe. Sponges are obtained from the Bahamas, while Trinidad supplies rubber, asphalt, and petroleum. All this means that the West Indies no longer rely upon one main crop. When they produced only one important crop they were ruined when it was no longer needed; now that they raise many different crops they are likely to remain prosperous.

Government of the British West Indies. Each of the larger islands of the British West Indies has a Governor, and there are Governors over groups of the smaller islands. It has been proposed that all the islands should be placed under one Governor-General, as in Canada or Australia or South Africa. But though on the map the islands seem to be close together they are really widely scattered; there is more than a thousand miles of sea between Jamaica and Barbados. For this and other reasons it seemed unlikely that the West Indies would ever be united under one government. Nevertheless, this has been arranged. From the beginning of 1958 the West Indies will be a Federation, and a Governor-General has already been appointed.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. (a) Which European nations had colonies in the West Indies in the eighteenth century?
 (b) What was produced in the islands?
 (c) What system of labour was used?
2. What are the chief islands in the British West Indies? State how each of them was acquired?
3. Account for (a) the decline in West Indian prosperity in the nineteenth century, and (b) its recovery in the twentieth century.
4. For what are the following men famous in the history of the British West Indies: (a) Captain Powell, (b) Sir Thomas Warner, (c) Sir George Somers, (d) Blackbeard, (e) Sir Henry Morgan, (f) Sir William Penn?
5. Write a few lines about each of the following: (a) the Caribs, (b) the buccaneers, (c) a Governor-General of the West Indies.

CHAPTER 33

EGYPT

Ancient Egypt. In ancient times Egypt was a highly civilised country, with a history which can be traced back for some thousands of years. Early Egyptian kings were called Pharaoh, and those of a later line were all known as Ptolemy. Egypt became a province of the Roman Empire in the time of Augustus, the first Roman Emperor.

Egypt contained two of the Seven Wonders of the World. The Pyramids, which are the tombs of some of the ancient kings, were built by slaves in the time of the Pharaohs. The Pharos was a tower of white marble on an island in the Bay of Alexandria; it was built by order of one of the Ptolemies, and on the top of it fires were kept burning by day and night to help sailors find their way in and out of the harbour.

Egypt in the Middle Ages. The story of Mohammed and the religion he founded is told in the first volume of this work. Not long after Mohammed's death Egypt was conquered by the Arabs, and for several centuries it was ruled by a line of Sultans. The country was important because people who wished to visit India passed through it. There was of course no Suez Canal, and travelers had to go overland through Egypt and take ship again in the Red Sea. Venetian merchants traded with India, and they paid the Sultan for letting them go through Egypt and preventing the merchants of other countries from doing so.

Egypt under the Turks. In the sixteenth century Egypt was conquered by the Turks, and for three hundred years it was part of the Turkish Empire. By this time India could be reached by way of the Cape of Good Hope. The Cape route was used by the East India Companies of England, France, and Holland, and

Egypt at this time was less important. Yet India could be reached more quickly by the overland route through Egypt, and this was sometimes used by people who wished to save time.

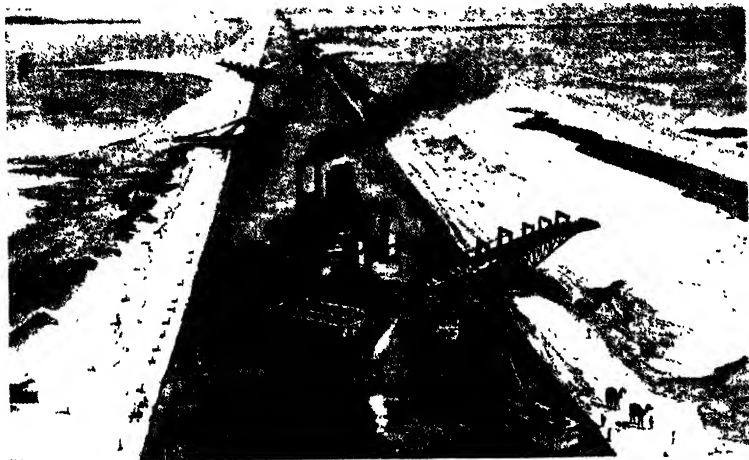
Bonaparte. In 1798 Bonaparte sailed to Egypt to conquer it for the French, but his fleet was destroyed by Nelson at the Battle of the Nile. Bonaparte returned to France, leaving his army behind, and the French plan failed.

Mehemet Ali. In the nineteenth century the Turks were not so strong as they had been formerly. From 1805 to 1849 Egypt was ruled by Mehemet Ali; until 1841 he was Viceroy of the Sultan of Turkey. He sent help to the Turks when the Greeks were fighting for their freedom, but he afterwards made war on the Sultan, hoping to conquer the province of Syria and add it to Egypt. He expected, but did not receive, help from the French, and Great Britain and other powers prevented him from keeping Syria. But in 1841 he was allowed to become independent of Turkey. He ruled Egypt well, though he taxed it heavily.

Suez Canal. A later ruler of Egypt, Ismail, took the title of Khedive. Ismail allowed a French engineer to construct the Suez Canal, which was opened in 1869, and in return he was given a large number of shares in the Suez Canal Company. The canal made Egypt a very important country again, since it was now on the chief route to India and many people visited it and passed through it.

The Suez Canal Shares. Ismail was in some ways a good ruler. Schools were established in Egypt, and railways were built, but the Khedive spent too much money on his pleasures. He found himself in debt, and he sold his shares in the Suez Canal Company to the British Government for four million pounds. Great Britain thus became part-owner of the canal. Ismail continued to borrow money from people in Great Britain and France who were willing to lend it, and the money he received became an

Egyptian National Debt. He was unable to pay the interest on the debt, and in 1879 the British and French Governments deposed him and appointed his son Tewfik to be Khedive.



THE SUEZ CANAL

Weaver Smith

Arabi Pasha. French and British officers were sent to Egypt to put the country's affairs in order and see that interest was paid on the debt. The Egyptians disliked the presence of these foreigners, and in 1882 they rose in revolt under Arabi Pasha. The revolt was suppressed by the British, since the French Government refused to take part in putting it down. Alexandria was bombarded by a British fleet, and Arabi Pasha was defeated at the Battle of Tel-el-Kebir by General Wolseley. Arabi was exiled to Ceylon for many years.

The British in Egypt. After 1882 Egypt, though still under the Khedive Tewfik, was really ruled by an Englishman, Lord Cromer.

It was not a British colony, and the British intended to stay in Egypt only so long as was necessary to make it prosperous, so that it could pay its debts.

Railways were built, canals were cut, and irrigation works were established. There is not much rainfall in Egypt, and the peasants who cultivate the soil depend on the Nile overflowing its banks and flooding the fields every year. In some years there is too much floodwater, at other times too little; in either case the crops suffer. British engineers built dams on the Nile, such as the great dam at Assuan, and constructed great reservoirs; when there was too much water in the river some of it was sent into the reservoirs, and when there was too little the reservoirs were opened. Canals were supplied with water from the reservoirs, and additional land, watered from these canals, was cultivated. It became possible to reduce taxation because it was levied over a larger area of country.

Egyptian villages were very dirty, and disease was spread by swarms of flies. It was not possible to improve the health of the people very much until they could be taught to change their habits, and, especially, to keep themselves clean. Doctors who had been trained to deal with Egyptian diseases visited the villages, and some improvement followed. Blindness, caused by dust and the glare of the sun and the plague of flies which settled on the face, was common among the peasants. Travelling hospitals were sent round to treat diseases of the eyes.

Changes were made in the law courts. Before British rule was established in Egypt it was impossible for a man to win his case in a law court unless he bribed the judge. Torture had sometimes been used, but this was now stopped, and judges who accepted presents were dismissed. A new police force was established.

The Sudan. Some Egyptian troops were stationed in the Sudan, a province to the south of Egypt, to keep order there. In 1883 there was a rising of Dervishes in the Sudan, led by the Mahdi, whom they thought to be a prophet, and in a fight between Egyptians and Dervishes a British general named Hicks was slain. It was decided to withdraw all troops from the Sudan,

and in 1884 General Gordon was sent to Khartum to arrange for the troops and their families to be sent down the Nile to Egypt. Hundreds of women and children and some of the men were sent off, but Gordon disobeyed his orders by retaining some of the

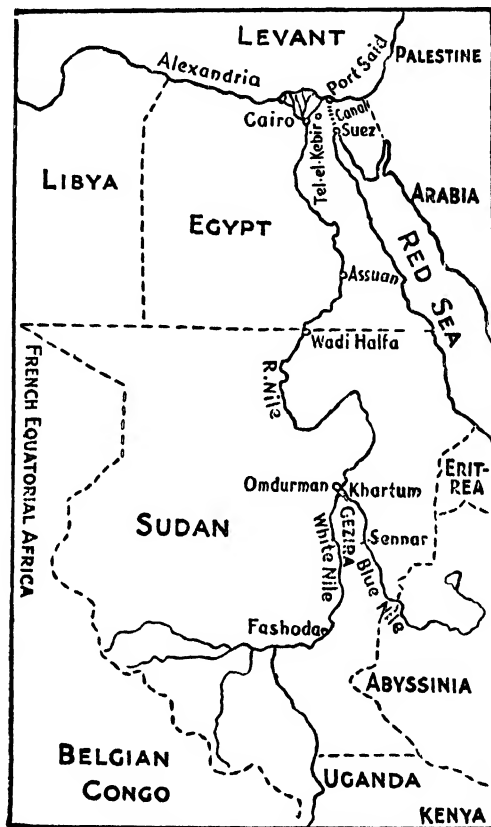
*Weaver Smith*

THE DEATH OF GORDON

troops at Khartum, which he hoped to hold against the Dervishes. He asked for a British expedition to be sent to "smash the Mahdi." For several months the British Government did nothing, and though at length a force was sent to relieve him it arrived at Khartum a day or two after he had been murdered by Dervishes. The Sudan was abandoned for many years.

In 1898 an expedition under Sir Herbert Kitchener was sent to reconquer the Sudan. It advanced slowly, since a railway was being constructed, and the army moved with the railway. By this time the Mahdi was dead, and at the Battle of Omdurman Kitchener defeated the Dervishes and recovered Khartum.

Since that time the Sudan, under joint British and Egyptian rule, has been peaceful. Cotton and other crops are grown in it



EGYPT AND THE SUDAN

Egypt during the European War of 1914-18. During the European War the Turks, who were allies of the Germans, tried to recover their lost province of Egypt. They prepared to attack the canal, but they were driven back by Lord Allenby, who advanced into Palestine and captured Jerusalem.

Egyptian Independence. In 1922 the ruler of Egypt assumed the title of King, and the British Government stated that Egypt should be independent, though a British force was to remain in the country for the defence of the canal.

It was not until 1936 that a treaty between Great Britain and Egypt was drawn up, and during the World War of 1939-45 large British forces were sent to Egypt to defend it from German and Italian attack. As described elsewhere, General Montgomery defeated the Germans and Italians at the Battle of Alamein and drove them right across North Africa to Tunis.

In 1946 the British Government stated that it intended to withdraw the remaining British troops from Egypt and to leave the defence of the canal to the Egyptians. But the Egyptians wanted the British to leave not only Egypt but the Sudan also, which they regarded as part of Egypt; the British insisted that the future of the Sudan--whether it was to be an Egyptian province, a British colony, or an independent state--should be determined by the Sudanese people. Agreement was reached in 1954, and the withdrawal of British troops was completed in 1956.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Which of the Seven Wonders of the World were to be found in Egypt? Describe them.
2. Why was Egypt important in the Middle Ages and less important from the sixteenth century till the middle of the nineteenth?
3. Why did the British take charge of the government of Egypt? What have they achieved in the country?
4. Write four or five lines about each of the following: (a) Pharaoh, (b) Suez Canal, (c) the Assuan Dam, (d) the Battle of Omdurman.
5. For what are the following men notable in Egyptian history: (a) Mehemet Ali, (b) Ismail, (c) Lord Cromer, (d) the Mahdi, (e) Arabi Pasha, (f) General Gordon?

CHAPTER 34

INDIA

(WITH CEYLON AND BURMA)

The Break-up of the Mogul Empire. India was formerly the Mogul Empire and was ruled by a line of Mogul Emperors who bore the title of "Great Mogul." The last of the powerful Moguls died in 1707. In the eighteenth century the Mogul Emperors had little power, and the provinces of their Empire became separate states, some large and some small, under Rajahs or Nabobs. Many wars occurred among these states, and the country was rarely quite peaceful.

European Trade with India. Europeans, especially French and British, visited India to trade. They did not rule any part of the country until after the middle of the eighteenth century. The East India Companies of England and France each had several factories, or trading stations, on or near the coasts; their ships visited these factories and were loaded with Indian goods to be taken to Europe for sale.

The Establishment of British Rule in India. Dupleix, the Governor of the chief French factory, Pondicherry, took part in some of the Indian wars, hoping to extend French influence and set up a French Empire in India. He was opposed by Clive, through whose victories at Arcot in 1751 and Plassey in 1757 the French were beaten and British rule in India began. For nearly two hundred years the British were the chief European power in India, though at first they ruled only a single province (Bengal). From time to time other provinces were taken by the British, but they never ruled the whole of India. Many Indian states remained which were ruled by Indian princes. The parts of India under direct British rule were known as British India.

The Viceroy and Governor-General. The East India Company was the ruling power in British India until the Indian Mutiny. After the Mutiny the Company was abolished, and the government of India was carried on in the name of the Queen. While the Company existed it appointed the Governor-General, and after it came to an end he was appointed by the British Government. He was known as Viceroy and Governor-General; he was Governor-General of British India and Viceroy over the whole of India. (He was Viceroy, but not Governor-General, over the Indian states.)

British Forces in India. When the Company was the ruling power there were many wars with Indian princes and peoples who attacked the British, and it was as a result of these wars that many Indian states became provinces of British India. The Company maintained three armies in India—in Bengal, Bombay, and Madras, and in each army there were some British troops and a larger number of sepoy (native troops) under British officers. Some regiments of the British army also were stationed in India, but these were not under the Company. As British power increased, wars became fewer, and the land enjoyed more peace than it had known for hundreds of years.

After the Indian Mutiny the Company's sepoy troops became the Indian army and its British soldiers became part of the British army. Until recently there were in India a British army and an Indian army; in addition, some of the Indian princes had their own armies.

Lord William Bentinck. Lord William Bentinck, who was Governor-General from 1828 to 1835, ruled well and made many changes for the better in India. He resolved to destroy the Thugs. The Thugs were bands of murderers who travelled on the roads in many parts of India. They would pretend to be peaceful merchants, and when they met or overtook other travellers they would propose that all should go together in order to protect one another against robbers. When the travellers stopped to rest at some lonely part of the road the Thugs would murder their victims by strangling them. The bodies would be

stripped and buried, and the Thugs would go on their way in search of other victims. It was not easy to suppress them, because it was hard to find out who they were, but when some of them gave evidence against their friends the bands were broken up and many Thugs were hanged. Some of them had committed hundreds of murders before they were caught.

It was the practice in some parts of India for the dead body of an Indian of high rank to be burned on a great pile of wood and for his widow to cast herself on the blazing heap to die with him. This was known as Suttee, and it was forbidden by Bentinck. It would be too much to say that it was entirely stopped by him, for India was very large and contained many millions of people. There were not many of the British, and for many years after Bentinck's time Suttee sometimes occurred in places where there were no British officers to prevent it.

While Bentinck was Governor-General schools were opened for the Indians. Only a few of the people became educated, because there were not enough schools (even to-day there are not enough), but at least native education was begun. There were so many languages among the Indians that it was necessary to use the English language in the schools. Newspapers were started in India at this time.

Lord Dalhousie. Another Governor-General who carried out many reforms in India was Lord Dalhousie, who ruled from 1848 to 1856. Before his time India was almost without good roads. Even between important towns the roads were merely rough tracks. While Dalhousie was Governor-General many good roads were made, and bridges were built over rivers which hitherto had had to be forded.

A system of Indian railways was planned, and the first Indian railway was built and opened. There were no Indian engineers at this time, and engineers and workmen had to be brought from England. Even the rails, the sleepers, the signal posts, the locomotives, and the carriages had to come from England, and as this was before the Suez Canal was cut they had to be carried by way of the Cape of Good Hope. The ships bringing these

materials were unloaded at Madras, where large ships could not come alongside the wharves but had to discharge their cargo into smaller vessels which brought it to land. Locomotives had to be driven by Englishmen until natives could be trained for the work. Even when a railway was made nobody could be sure that the Indians would use it, for, as described farther on in this chapter, the Indians are of many castes, and a man of high caste will not go near one of low caste.

Telegraphs were established in India while Dalhousie was Governor-General, and a postal service was begun.

Dalhousie proclaimed that if an Indian prince died without a son or brother to succeed him his state would be taken over by the British. It was common for an Indian prince who had no son to adopt a boy as his son, but Dalhousie would not let an adopted son succeed to the rule of a state. This caused much anger among the princes and was one of the causes of the Indian Mutiny. After the Mutiny the British Government permitted an adopted son to succeed an Indian prince if he had no natural son.

Dalhousie also declared that an Indian prince who ruled his state badly might be deposed, and he actually deposed the Nabob of Oudh. The princes disliked this, but it should be remembered that in doing it Dalhousie was protecting poor people against harsh and cruel leaders.

The Indian Mutiny. Dalhousie returned to England in 1856, and in 1857 the Indian Mutiny broke out. It is natural to think that the Mutiny occurred because of what Dalhousie had done, but in fact many causes helped to bring it about.

A hundred years had passed since the Battle of Plassey, and many Indians believed that British rule in India would last one hundred years and no longer. There had recently been wars against Afghans and Sikhs and British troops had suffered some defeats, and the Indians thought that British troops had lost their old fighting power. Some regiments had been removed from India to take part in the Crimean War (1854-6), and these had not been replaced, so that the number of British soldiers in India at this time was smaller than usual.

The sepoy had recently been armed with a new type of rifle, the Lee-Enfield, in place of the Brown Bess. The ends of the cartridges for the Lee-Enfield rifle had to be bitten off by the soldiers, and the men believed that the cartridges were greased with the fat of the cow or of the pig. Some sepoys were Hindus and others were Moslems (or Mohammedans); Hindus regarded the cow as a sacred animal, while Moslems looked upon the pig as unclean. The religious feelings of both Hindus and Moslems were offended, and though it was denied that pig's fat or cow's fat was used there is no doubt that this was one of the causes of the Mutiny. Hindu religious feelings were offended in another way. A few years earlier sepoys had been sent by sea to fight in a war in Burma, and they feared that they would lose caste through travelling by sea.

The work of such Governors-General as Bentinck and Dalhousie had been of great benefit to the Indian people—or so, at least, it seemed to the British. It was not understood that the Indians did not like western ways and that they preferred to live as they always had done, without having railways, post offices, schools, and other things introduced by the British. The improvements in India were not wanted by the Indians.

Finally, some of the princes who disliked the rules laid down by Dalhousie joined in the revolt and were ready to lead the sepoys.

The Mutiny was not a rising of the Indian people but only of the sepoys of the Bengal army. The only people, besides the sepoys, who took part in it were those of Oudh and Delhi. Even the sepoys of Madras and Bombay were loyal and helped to put it down. Men from other parts of India, the Sikhs and others, also fought against the mutineers; this was probably because there were many races in India, some of which hated one another much more than they disliked the British.

The Mutiny began at Meerut, where the sepoys murdered their officers, and this happened at some other places also. The mutineers took Delhi and besieged Lucknow and Cawnpore. Cawnpore was captured, and many British were massacred, their bodies being flung into a well, but the garrison of Lucknow

resisted desperately and was relieved. Delhi was recovered by the British, and the back of the Mutiny was broken, though some months passed before order was restored everywhere and all the rebel sepoys were killed or captured.



THE RELIEF OF LUCKNOW

Weaver Smith

British Rule since the Mutiny. The East India Company was abolished in 1858 and the Queen was proclaimed sovereign of India. (In 1877 she took the title of Empress of India.) Indian princes were told that the British Government would not annex their states and they would be left alone so long as they were loyal to the Queen and ruled their people well, and this promise has been kept faithfully. Since the Mutiny India has been ruled by a line of Viceroys who have done much for the good of the people. India has been peaceful, and Indian peasants have been left to cultivate their little plots of land without having to fear that they would be slain and their homes burned by invaders.

For many centuries India from time to time has suffered from famines. Every year there are rainy periods known as monsoons, and if the monsoons give less rain than usual the crops are poor, and there is a shortage of food. But India is large, and the shortage does not occur in all parts of the country at the same time. While there is famine in some provinces there may be enough, and more than enough, food elsewhere, and the famine can be relieved by moving food from the regions where it is plentiful to those where it is needed. In earlier times this was not done because nobody troubled to arrange for it to be done and there were no good roads by which the food could be taken. Since the Mutiny railways have been built in all parts of India, and they are used for the relief of famine.

The amount of rainfall in various parts of the country is measured. Any province in which it is much less than usual may be declared to be in a state of famine. This does not mean that people are starving but that there is a danger of shortage of food. From other parts of India food is sent into the famine area and stored, and when it is needed it is given to the people. This system of relieving famine has been worked out so fully that in ordinary times people no longer die of famine in India. (There were many deaths by famine in Bengal in 1943, but this was because Burma, from which rice would have been sent to India in time of peace, was occupied by the Japanese.)

Irrigation canals have been cut in many parts of India. These canals take water for the crops from the great rivers, and they supply water for the crops when there is not enough rainfall. It thus sometimes happens that it is not necessary to declare a province to be in a state of famine, even though the monsoon rain may be less than usual. Some of these canals are in parts of the country in which there is never very much rain, and land which was formerly desert is now cultivated.

Much has been done to improve the health of the people and to stamp out such diseases as cholera, plague, and small-pox. British and Indian doctors are specially trained for dealing with the diseases which are common in India. There is still a great deal to be done in fighting disease, and Indian peasants are not

so clean as they might be; people who are clean are less likely to be attacked by disease than those with dirty habits. Yet so much has been done to improve the health of the people and to save them from death by famine that the population of India has increased very much. India now contains about four hundred million people, about one-fifth of the population of the world.

The Hindus are divided into many castes. The members of one caste will not associate with those of any lower caste, lest they be defiled and "lose caste." There are four important castes, of which the Brahmans are the highest, and, in addition, there are sixty million Indians who are "outcastes," or "untouchables." These people are very poor; they have no education; and they are expected to do all the dirtiest and most unpleasant work throughout the country. Men of the higher castes despise them. The future government of India will be in the hands of high-caste Hindus who are unlikely to do very much to improve the condition of the outcastes.

Self-government for India. It has not been the aim of the British to rule India for ever but to train Indians to rule their own country. Indians have for many years been in the civil service; they have been officers in the Indian army; judges have been Indians; Indians have been members of the Council that advises the Viceroy.

There are many races and several religions in India. More than half the people are Hindus, and about a quarter are Moslems. The Indian National Congress represents the Hindus, though a few Moslems belong to it, but most of the Moslems are represented in the Moslem League.

The British Government in 1947 announced its intention of withdrawing from India and leaving the Indians to rule the country. Both the Congress and the League wanted the British to leave India; yet neither of these groups would trust the other. They were unable to agree to work together in governing India or even in drawing up a plan for the government of the country, and there seemed to be some possibility that when the British left India civil war might break out.

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In March, 1947, Lord Mountbatten was sent to India as Viceroy, with instructions to try to reach a solution of the problem of India's future which should be acceptable to both Hindus and Moslems. As a result of his efforts it was resolved that British



INDIA, CEYLON, AND BURMA

India should be divided into two parts—India, in which the Hindus were predominant, and Pakistan, in which the Moslems were in a majority. On 15th August, 1947, each of these became a Dominion of the British Commonwealth. Lord Mountbatten became Governor-General of India and Mr. Jinnah, a Moslem leader, became Governor-General of Pakistan. The King ceased to bear the title of Emperor of India. Each Dominion was entirely independent of Great Britain, and it was left to each of them to work out its own constitution and to determine whether it would remain within the British Commonwealth of Nations or would

declare itself to be an independent republic. In 1950 India became a republic within the Commonwealth; in 1953 Pakistan declared itself to be "an Islamic Republic within the British Commonwealth."

Ceylon. Ceylon is not a part of India. It was conquered from the Dutch in 1795 and has been a British possession ever since. Very large quantities of tea are grown on the island, which also produces rubber and rice. Ceylon has recently been given self-government through a Parliament elected by its people, and in 1948 it became a Dominion like the others which are equal in status to one another and to Great Britain.

Burma. There were three wars with Burma in the nineteenth century. The King of Burma ill-treated British merchants who visited his country to trade, and in a war which occurred between 1823 and 1826 the province of Assam was captured and joined to India. For much the same reason another war took place in 1852, and Lower Burma, including the port of Rangoon, was conquered. From that time the state of Burma had no sea-coast, and its chief town was Mandalay. The third war, in 1886, lasted only three weeks. A British force went up the River Irawadi, captured King Thecbaw, and deposed him. Burma became a province of India.

The Burmese people are much better educated than those of India, and in 1937 Burma was separated from India because it was thought possible to give it self-government in the near future. During the World War of 1939-45 Burma was conquered by the Japanese, but it was recovered by the British Fourteenth Army under the command of Lord Louis Mountbatten. The Japanese did much damage in the country, which will take some years to restore. Many bridges must be rebuilt and railways must be relaid.

In 1948 Burma ceased to be a part of the British Empire and became an independent republic.

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QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What military forces existed in India (*a*) in the time of the East India Company, and (*b*) after the Indian Mutiny?
2. Describe the work of (*a*) Lord William Bentinck, and (*b*) Lord Dalhousie.
3. What were the causes of the Indian Mutiny?
4. What have been the benefits of British rule in India?
5. Trace the steps which have been taken in India in the twentieth century towards self-government.
6. What was conquered in each of the three Burmese Wars?
7. Write four or five lines about each of the following: (*a*) monsoon, (*b*) sepoys, (*c*) the factories of the East India Company, (*d*) the Viceroy, (*e*) the Great Mogul, (*f*) the Indian National Congress, (*g*) caste.

TIME CHART

ENGLISH HISTORY

	100	— 55-54. Caesar
	B.C.	B.C.
	A.D.	
	100	— 43. Roman Conquest began
ROMAN PERIOD	200	
	300	
	400	— 410. Romans left Britain
		— 449. English Invasion
	500	
	600	
ANGLO-SAXON PERIOD	700	
	800	
	900	
	1000	
NORMAN PERIOD	1066.	Norman Conquest
	1100	
	1154.	Henry II
PLANTAGENET PERIOD	1200	
	1300	
	1400	
TUDOR PERIOD	1485.	Henry VII
	1500	
	1600	
STUART PERIOD	1603.	James I
	1700	
	1714.	George I
	1800	
HANOVERIAN PERIOD (and after)	1900	
	— 1957.	Present time
	2000	

CONCLUSION

We have reached the end of the third volume of this work, but we have not reached the end of the story, for it is still going on. The readers of the three volumes will have learned something of the story of the British people, in peace and in war, in Great Britain and in other parts of the world. Now and then there have been events—such as the burning of Joan of Arc—which Englishmen would wish not to have happened, but these are not many. Mistakes have sometimes been made, as in the trouble with the American colonies, but Englishmen have been willing to learn from their mistakes in order to avoid them in future. The story as a whole is one of which every English man or woman or boy or girl may be proud.

Wars have occurred, but it is remarkable how rarely the British people have wanted to go to war. If Great Britain had wanted war she would have prepared for it, but in her wars, in modern times at least, she has been quite unprepared because she has not wanted war and has not expected it. Yet, even if defeated at first, she has held on and pulled through to victory. It has been said that "the British people may lose many battles but they always win the last one." The British people have acted on the advice of Polonius to his son Laertes:

Beware
Of entrance to a quarrel; but, being in,
Bear 't that th' opposed may beware of thee.

The story of England is long, and it is not finished. If the Germans had conquered in the World War of 1939-45 the story of England would have come to an end; even if the people had not been carried off or enslaved England would henceforth have been a little country of no importance. This did not happen, and the story will go on.

It is the duty and the privilege of the people living to-day, and especially of the girls and boys, to carry it on. It is very much

to be hoped that they will not be called upon to fight for their country, though no doubt they would do so if it should be necessary. There is no reason why war, like duelling or witch-burning, should not become a thing of the past.

There are many other ways in which young people can serve their country, and not the least is in doing their daily work as well as they can. It is not only the famous people who serve their country. Some of those who serve their country may become famous, but nobody should work merely in order to become famous.

When we look at an old church which has stood for hundreds of years we do not know the names of the masons who placed the stones in position. Their names are forgotten, but they did their work well, and in doing it they contributed to the story of their country. The Spanish Armada was defeated not only by Howard and Drake and Hawkins but by the work of thousands of seamen in the English fleet; their names, too, are forgotten. "And some there be, which have no memorial; who are perished, as though they had never been; and are become as though they had never been born; and their children after them." That is the fate of nearly everybody. Countless millions of men and women have lived in this world, and very few of them are remembered. The names of few of those who are now living will be known in a hundred years' time. That does not matter; what does matter is that each one should live and work in a way worthy of the nation to which he belongs and that he should always remember that he is helping to carry on the story of England.